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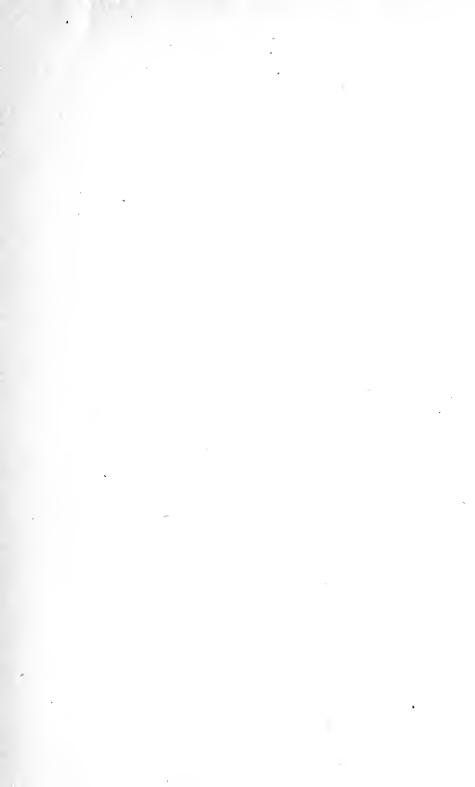
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A

HANDBOOK

OF THE

CHINESE LANGUAGE.

"Die Sprachlehre lehrt nicht eigentlich, wie man sprechen soll, sondern nur, wie man spricht..... Die Sprachlehre ist nur eine Physiologie der Sprache; sie kann nur in so fern lehren, wie man sprechen soll, als sie in uns die innern Bildungsgesetze der Sprache zum Bewusstsein bringt, und uns dadurch in Stand setzt, zu beurtheilen, ob die Sprechweise im Einzelnen diesen Gesetzen gemäss sei, oder nicht."—Becker's Organism der Sprache, page 9.

A

HANDBOOK

OF THE

CHINESE LANGUAGE.

PARTS I AND II,

GRAMMAR AND CHRESTOMATHY,

PREPARED WITH A VIEW

TO INITIATE THE STUDENT OF CHINESE IN THE RUDIMENTS
OF THIS LANGUAGE, AND TO SUPPLY MATERIALS
FOR HIS EARLY STUDIES.

ву

JAMES SUMMERS,

MAGDALEN HALL, OXFORD,

PROFESSOR OF THE CHINESE LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE, KING'S COLLEGE, LONDON,
LATE AN ASSISTANT IN THE LIBRARY OF THE BRITISH MUSEUM.

說將詳博孟 約以說學子 也 反之而曰

OXFORD:

AT THE UNIVERSITY PRESS.

MDCCCLXIII.

"Study things profoundly, and investigate the precise meaning of what you learn, and then you will acquire the means of forming a comprehensive system of principles."—Free translation of the extract from the works of Mang-tsz, which is printed on the title-page.

ADVERTISEMENT.

It has been deemed advisable to publish, in their present form, Parts I and II of the *Handbook of the Chinese Language*, in order to meet the demand which now exists for the work. They are complete in themselves, but when Parts III and IV—the Exercises and Dictionary—are finished, (which, it is hoped, may be done in a few months,) the whole will form a perfect apparatus for the student of Chinese to commence with in this country.

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PREFACE.

THE intention of the author in preparing this work for the press was to make a text-book for students of the Chinese language who attend his lectures at King's College, London, and to assist others who might commence the study of the language in this country, as well as to aid those who enter for the first time upon this study in China itself.

In order to show the need of some such book, it will be necessary fairly to pass in review the various works which are within reach of, or which may be supposed to exist for the student,—to point out candidly what appear to be their defects, and also to note their real value as aids to the study of Chinese.

The investigation of Chinese in this country, and even in Europe generally, is but of recent date. The vague expressions collected from the works of the Jesuits on the subject, though correct for the most part in themselves, needed a Jesuit to explain them and to guard the wayward fancy from misinterpreting them. The best rules and the deepest truths are often misunderstood because there is no teacher at hand to purge the *idola* from the mind and clear it of its earlier prejudices. The colouring of every thing that concerns the Chinese has been heightened by the romantic accounts of this nation given by the early historians of the East, and the imagination has supplied much that was not found in the reality.

The first work of a systematic character on the Chinese language was written by a Dominican, Père Varo, and printed from wooden blocks in Canton in 1703*.

Theoph. Sigefr. Bayer wrote a work in Latin, which was published in St. Petersburg in 1730 †. He was however not in a position to render much service to the subject which he attempted to explain. The work is made up

^{*} The title ran thus:—"Arte de la lengua mandarina, compuesto por el M. Rº. Pe. Francisco Varo, de la sagrada orden de N. P. S. Domingo, acrecentado y reducido a mejor forma, por Nº. Hº. Fr. Pedro de la Piñuela, p.ºr y commissario prov. de la Mission serafica de China; Añadio se un Confesionario muy util y provechoso para alivio de los nuevos ministros. Impreso en Canton, año de 1703." It consisted of 64 double leaves, 8º., printed in the Chinese manner. The work is very rare, but a copy is to be found among the Sloane MSS. of the British Museum.

[†] Museum Sinicum, in quo Sinicæ linguæ et litteraturæ ratio explicatur. Petropol. 1730. 2 vols. in 8°.

of various matter collected from the works of the Jesuits, which are commented on in a very vague and unsatisfactory manner. *M. Abel-Rémusat* writing, in the preface to his *Grammaire*, on this book says: "The greater part of this Grammar is taken up with details on the writing, the dictionaries, and the poetry; about fifty pages present nothing but the most ordinary notions on the mechanism of the language, and almost without any examples. The original characters are printed upon copper plates, to which the reader is referred. They are moreover so badly executed, that only those experienced in the subject can recognise them."

The next writer of note on Chinese was Fourmont*, who was quite incompetent for the task which he undertook; but in those times he was able to palm upon his countrymen many incorrect and absurd views of his own, while the little good and true information, which his books contain, was the production of other minds. The student may spare himself the trouble of examining them, as they are only calculated to mislead him. Several other works, unworthy of consideration, were published in various parts of Europe; but no book on the subject of Chinese was produced which can be recommended as worth perusal before the learned and able treatise of Dr. Marshman. His knowledge of the Sanskrit and the classical languages of antiquity, coupled with a practical acquaintance with Chinese, through his private studies with native teachers, enabled him to arrive at correct views on the genius and composition of the Chinese language. The Clavis Sinica t of Dr. Marshman is still worthy of a careful perusal by the earnest student, although, as a whole, it falls short of the requirements of the present day.

Dr. Morrison's Chinese Grammar issued the next year (1815) from the same press at Serampore. This work contains some valuable matter, but from the haste with which it appears to have been prepared for publication, and from the fact of its having been published at so early a period after Dr. Morrison's entrance upon the study, the student must not expect to derive much positively practical advantage from its perusal.

The first work that appeared in some measure to correspond to the wants of the student was the very clear and scientific grammar of M. Abel-Rémusat‡, the first Professor of the Language and Literature of China in the Royal

^{*} Meditationes Sinicæ, 1737, in fol., and Linguæ Sinarum Mandarinicæ hieroglyphicæ Grammatica duplex, 1742, in fol.

[†] The Clavis Sinica was published at Serampore in India in 1814. Dr. Marshman had had the opportunity of reading with several native Chinese scholars while in India, he availed himself of the aid of M. Rodrigues, a Jesuit from Peking, and he was assisted by Mr. Thomas Manning, who had also resided in China.

[‡] Élémens de la grammaire chinoise, ou principes généraux du Kou-wen ou style antique, et du Kouan-hoa, c'est-à-dire, de la langue commune généralement usitée dans l'Empire chinois. Par M. Abel-Rémusat, de l'Académie royale des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres, Professeur de Langue et de Littérature chinoises et tartares au Collége royal de France. Paris, 1822, in 8°. A new edition was recently printed in Paris, edited by M. Léon de Rosny, with a supplement.

College of France. The author had read the valuable examples given in the MS. of Prémarc's *Notitia Linguæ Sinicæ*, and had carefully consulted the original works referred to by that writer. M. Rémusat analysed these examples, and produced a work drawn out upon scientific principles, which keep in view the genius and peculiarities of the Chinese language.

The work of Prémare, mentioned above, remained for many years in manuscript in the Imperial Library of Paris. The author resided in China from 1698 until his death, about the year 1735. His plan was to teach by examples, and instead of giving rules, he gave the material from which rules might be formed. He recommended imitation and the practice of committing passages to memory. It will be seen therefore that although his work is an immense storehouse, it leaves the learner very much to himself in arriving at conclusions respecting the nature and genius of the language. It is not to be expected that every young man, who takes up such a work as this of Prémare's, can form a judgment of much grammatical significance from the examples before him. It is the duty of the grammarian to form the rules and to prove his propositions by examples. The value therefore of the work of Prémare is limited to affording a number of examples from which the advanced student may acquire a good deal of information on the style of the novels, and of a few other books from which they were drawn. The versions given of some of the examples are incorrect, but as a general rule they are sufficiently true to the original to be of service in acquiring the idiom of the language *.

In the year in which Dr. Morrison's Grammar was printed at Scrampore, the first portion of his Dictionary was published at Macao, having been printed at the sole expense of the East India Company. This great work in six quarto volumes, the last of which was not published until 1821, contains so much that is interesting and profitable to the student of Chinese that it is indispensably necessary to all who wish to collect information that may be depended upon. But with all praise of Dr. Morrison's ability and indefatigable labour, we cannot conceal the fact that his Dictionary is very imperfect, and often fails to render that assistance to the student which he requires. The enormous labour, almost without any help, which it involved, renders it a matter of surprise that so much was done and so well; and it behoves the author of the present small work to speak with diffidence on the subject of its demerits. Another work was written about the same time by Dr. Morrison, entitled: Dialogues and detached sentences in the Chinese language, with a free and verbal translation in English. This was a great help at the time it was published; but since China has been more largely opened to Europeans, and the facilities for learning the language are become greater, some parts of this work are found to savour of the Canton provincial phraseology. It is however

^{*} Notitia Linguæ Sinicæ, auctore P. Premare, Malaccæ cura academiæ Anglo-Sinensis. M.DCCC.XXXI. It was printed in 4°., at the expense of a British nobleman. A version of the Latin was made by the Rev. J. G. Bridgman, and was printed in 8°. at Canton in 1847. Copies of this work are now very scarce.

likely to prove very useful to those who can obtain it, but it is now difficult to be procured, as copies of it are scarce.

A useful little book appeared in 1823, compiled by Sir John F. Davis, Bart., F. R. S., &c., entitled Hien wun shoo.—Chinese moral maxims, with a free and verbal translation, affording examples of the grammatical structure of the language. These maxims are likely to be useful to those students who will commit them to memory; and, as the literal rendering of each word is given, as well as the free translation, it will be found useful to beginners.

The next writer who made an immense addition to the aids for learning Chinese was Père J. A. Gonçalves, a missionary at Macao. His Arte China, which was published in 1829, is the most complete work on the Chinese language which we possess. He spent great labour on an analysis of the characters, the result of which was what he called an "Alphabeto China;" but from its being explained in the Portuguese language, comparatively few study it. Every student of Chinese ought, however, to possess this work, on account of the valuable store of good phrases which it contains. After the alphabet he has ranged a collection of phrases and sentences, both in the colloquial idiom $(kw\bar{a}n-hw\hat{a})$, and in the style of the books $(k\hat{u}-w\hat{a}n)$, graduated in difficulty to suit the beginner; then follows a grammar, in which he occasionally tortures the Chinese to adapt it to some peculiarity in the grammar of his own lan-There is also a very good collection of sentences in the form of The allusions made to facts in history, the great names, the epistolary style, extracts from prose and poetry, and the principles of elegant composition (wân-chāng), all enter into this fund for the Chinese student. Unfortunately very meagre explanations are given; while the sounds of the characters, except in the alphabeto, are omitted, and the translations appear in some cases to be not the most happy. For study with a native instructor the book is invaluable; but without such assistance it must fail to aid the beginner. Père Gonçalves also prepared several other great works, dictionaries, in Portuguese and Latin, all of which are worthy of consideration.

Two works by Mr. Robert Thom, H. B. Majesty's Consul at Ningpo, also deserve mention here, as calculated to assist the student in his initiatory studies; *Esop's Fables* in Chinese, with interlinear translation in the Canton and Mandarin dialects; and the *Chinese Speaker*, or extracts from works written in the Mandarin dialect as spoken at Peking. The author however had not much opportunity of hearing the Peking dialect spoken, and being under the necessity of following the work from which he translated, which was a book used to teach the Mandarin dialect in the provinces, he fell into some errors of pronunciation; and what is to be regretted still more, he entirely disregarded the "tones," and neglected to insert any mark by which to guide the student in learning them.

The works of Dr. Medhurst call for some notice at this point. We can only speak of them in a general manner, as it would occupy too large a space to criticise them with any degree of minuteness. The most useful and important work of Dr. Medhurst's on the Chinese language is his Chinese-English

Dictionary, published in Batavia in 1843, 2 vols. 8°. The whole was lithographed, and therefore is so far inferior to Dr. Morrison's Dictionary, but in other respects it is far superior and more complete than Dr. Morrison's first part, to which it corresponds in arrangement. Dr. Medhurst next edited "Notices of Chinese Grammar" by Philosinensis (Dr. Gützlaff). This work was prepared in haste, and consequently neither the author nor the editor did justice to his abilities and acquirements. Dr. Medhurst afterwards published a book of Dialogues, which are good, and an English-Chinese Dictionary, as well as a Dictionary of Chinese in the Hok-kiën dialect. All his works are useful. He was a Chinese scholar of very extensive reading and indefatigable in labour.

M. Callery's Dictionary, entitled, Systema Phoneticum Scriptura Sinica, published in 1842, was on a new plan, which is worthy of the student's attention (cf. Arts. 50 and 51 of this Grammar); but the meanings given of each character are few, and the absence of words which are formed with the characters diminishes the usefulness of the book. We have found however that the meanings are very correct, and we should recommend the student to procure a copy, if possible. Mr. Williams, the editor of the Chinese Repository, now connected with the United States Mission to China, has produced several very practical works for the beginner, from among which the Vocabulary (English-Chinese) in the Mandarin dialect, and his recently published Dictionary in the Canton dialect, may be recommended. His Easy Lessons in Chinese are universally spoken of with praise; they are however in the Canton dialect; but much that is common to the Mandarin dialect is also to be found in the book.

The sinologues of France and Germany claim some notice at this period. Professor Julien of Paris, whose learning in Chinese is unquestioned, his accurate knowledge of the language having been proved by his excellent translation of Mencius in 1824, stands first among them. But unfortunately he has not published any grammar or dictionary of the language, tasks for which he must be eminently qualified. His writings consist chiefly of translations and critiques, and we consider his views of such weight that we recommend the student of Chinese to procure any of his works which he can meet with, especially his critical translation of the works of Mencius into Latin. Professor Bazin also deserves well of all students of Chinese for his various papers on Chinese literature, and for his Grammaire Mandarine, which is a good work on the subject, and may be read with profit, notwithstanding some blemishes, owing probably to the author's not having studied the language in China.

Among the Germans, Dr. Stephen Endlicher of Vienna has written a very perspicuous work on Chinese Grammar, as far as the language of the books is concerned.

Dr. Julius Klaproth was engaged upon Chinese many years, and his criticisms are generally marked by shrewd discernment and accurate distinction, but he did not write either a grammar or a dictionary, although he added a

Supplement of great value to the Dictionary of De Guignes. This latter, which we omitted to mention above, may well be noticed here. It was published by order of the Emperor Napoleon I. in huge folio. The basis of it was the Manuscript Dictionary of Père Bazil de Glemone. The editor added very little to the original MS. excepting probably the French renderings, which are given as well as the Latin. The meanings are singularly correct; they had been made from the native Chinese Dictionary of K'ang-hi. The deficiency however among the words which occur as compounds under each character, and the unwieldy size of the book, render it, even with the Supplement of Klaproth, inferior to the Dictionaries of Morrison, Medhurst, and Williams.

In 1857 a Chinesische Sprachlehre by Dr. Schott was published in Berlin. This work is in our opinion superior to all others in its simple system of grammatical analysis for the Chinese language, and although it does not extend to the spoken language—the Mandarin dialect—at all, what is said therein respecting the book-style or learned language of China, and the analysis of the same, is well worthy of the most careful study. Dr. Schott's Sketch of the Literature of China is another great acquisition to the aids in the study of Chinese. We recommend both of these to the student's attention.

In the same year in which Dr. Schott's Grammar appeared in Germany, the Rev. Joseph Edkins, B. A., of Shanghai, published a Grammar of the Mandarin Dialect. He had previously given to the public a Grammar of the Dialect of Shanghai, in which much accurate knowledge of the language was displayed; and in his next work on the Mandarin he eclipsed all his predecessors in exhibiting not the mere language of the novels, which had sufficed for Prémare, Gützlaff, and others, but the language which he had obtained vivâ voce from the natives, and by a comparison with many native scholars. We cannot agree with him in every thing he says respecting the tones or with his mode of spelling Chinese syllables in every instance, but we are bound to give unqualified praise to a work which shows so much laborious research, and which has made such an advance in the mode of treating the subject. Every student should possess himself of a copy as soon as he arrives in China.

Another work which it behoves us to mention is by the present Chinese Secretary, Thomas Francis Wade, Esq., C. B. It is entitled, The Hsin-tsing-lū, or Book of Experiments, being the first of a series of Contributions to the Study of Chinese. It was published at Hongkong in 1859. It is devoted to the dialect of Peking, the species of Mandarin which is affected by the court and the officials of the empire; but not employed throughout the provinces as Mandarin, excepting by the high officials who come direct from the northern capital. This work of Mr. Wade's is very limited in its scope, for the 362 sentences given in the first part are confined to the single subject of "heaven" and the phenomena of the skies. The second part contains a passage from the Paraphrase of the Sacred Edict; and the third, some good sentences explanatory of the tones of the Peking dialect. The notes which the work contains are calculated to prove useful, and there is no question about its

being a bona-fide work on Pekinese. It is to be regretted that greater care was not bestowed on revision, and that the subject of the first part was not made more extensive in its range, so as to have answered more immediately to the wants of the student-interpreters, for whose benefit the work was composed. With the enormous labour which has devolved upon Mr. Wade as Chief Interpreter and Secretary, coupled with his own close habits of study, we may well wonder that he found time to bring any work of this kind to a completion; and we hail the "Contributions" as being likely to serve a very good purpose, and as the earnest of much more as soon as leisure affords the opportunity for its preparation.

The last work which we must notice is by Dr. James Legge, of the London Missionary Society. This bids fair to supersede all its predecessors in the The work is entitled, The Chinese Classics: with field of Chinese classics. a translation, critical and exegetical notes, prolegomena, and copious indexes: roy. 8vo. Hongkong, 1861. The whole work will consist of seven volumes, one of which has recently appeared; and the remaining six volumes are expected to be ready for publication during the course of the next five years. The enormous labour which must be expended upon a critical translation and explanation of the classical books of the Chinese, executed in the style which this first volume indicates, could hardly have been undertaken by a scholar more likely to succeed in the task than Dr. Legge. The Prolegomena contains digested information, on the lives and opinions of Confucius and his disciples, never before presented to European readers. Dr. Legge has drawn largely upon native sources, and the facts which he has collected, and his own remarks upon them, cannot fail to be interesting and instructive to students of Chinese in common with many others. The native text is in bold clear type, and is accompanied by a translation and critical notes on each page. The indexes will be found most valuable to the student; they form at once a concordance and dictionary to the volume; and the book as a whole will render a great service to Chinese scholars generally. We earnestly hope that Dr. Legge's health may not suffer from his close application in the climate of Hongkong.

After reading this list of the principal works on the subject of Chinese, the reader may ask what need there was of another. Our answer to this is, that no one of these books meets the wants of the beginner; they do undoubtedly en masse give almost all that is needed, certainly more than the author of the present work could on his sole responsibility lay before the student, but each individually cannot answer all the common questions which suggest themselves to the mind of the student on entering upon the study of Chinese. Among the questions which we may suppose to arise are, "As the Chinese have no letters, how shall I write down the sounds of their words? How do they represent words in writing? How do they pronounce? How do they distinguish one syllable from another of the same sound? What is their mode of writing? How are their words constructed? Where shall I obtain copies for writing?—text to read,—explanation to this text?" The reply might be: "You

must purchase the works of Morrison or Schott or Williams for one thing, you must buy those of Edkins and Wade for another, you must send to China for text, and buy a Dictionary which will cost you from four to ten guineas for explanations, and then you will find you want a native teacher or a European proficient in the language to help you."

In the work which the author now ventures to present to the public, he thinks a sufficient answer to the above questions will be found, as well as all the aids which a beginner needs in this most difficult study. He has availed himself of all the help which he felt he needed from the above authors, and he freely acknowledges the great assistance which the works of Drs. Morrison and Williams have afforded him for lexicography, and the works of Prémare, Gonçalves, Gützlaff, Schott, Edkins, and Wade, for grammar and examples to grammatical rules.

For translations of some of the passages in the Chrestomathy he is under obligation for help derived from the works of Dr. Medhurst, Sir John Davis, Bart., F. R. S., Père Gonçalves, and Professor Bazin.

Having noticed the various works on the subject of Chinese grammar and lexicography, and having pointed out the need which exists for a book adapted to the wants of the beginner, it remains for the author of the present work to explain the plan of it, and to show wherein it is likely to fulfil the purpose for which it was prepared. In a work which professes to initiate the student in the rudiments of a language, three things are generally looked for; t. Some account of the letters employed to represent its sounds, with the character and quality of those sounds; 2. An explanation of its forms of words, and, if possible, a complete classification of these words as parts of speech; 3. An exposition of its arrangement of words in sentences, showing how words and clauses are dependent upon each other, either on account of their relative positions, or the peculiar inflexions of the words themselves.

These considerations naturally lead to the formation of three divisions in the grammar of the Chinese tongue. And in order to adapt it to this arrangement, we have to consider, in the first place, the best mode of representing its sounds and syllables. But as the Chinese language possesses no alphabet, we are compelled to employ that with which we are best acquainted, viz. the Roman. And then we have to consider what value each Roman letter shall possess in a system for spelling Chinese words. Shall the uncertain value of English letters be taken? or shall we assume for each letter, which we employ, a value which shall remain constant and uniform, as is the case in some of the languages on the continent of Europe? We have preferred the latter course, and have followed in the footsteps of Sir William Jones, Dr. Lepsius, and many other Orientalists. As we have to invent an alphabet to represent Chinese sounds, we deem it best to avoid the eccentricities of the English mode of spelling, and we have chosen the regular orthography of the German and the Italian in preference. It may be observed that the system of orthography adopted presents scarcely any deviation from that now acknowledged to be the best suited for writing down the sounds of strange tongues,

being most in accordance with the fundamental laws of speech. A glance at the tables given on pages 3 and 5 will suffice to show the extreme simplicity of Chinese syllables, as regards their formation, and the ease with which the mere syllable may be read. The value of each letter has been explained very fully by examples in English, French, and German, so that no mistake need arise on that score.

A more difficult subject, however, presented itself in the elucidation of the Chinese "tones." The explanation which the author has given of them will, he thinks, assist the student. They were the subject of his careful study while in China, and he has more than once proved his views respecting them to be correct. That there are slight variations in these Chinese tones there is no denying. But the mode of illustrating them by the accentuation or emphasis given to English words under certain circumstances will enable the foreign student to acquire the first elementary power to enunciate them; and with such an attainment, although rude and in a measure unpolished, he will have made progress in the right direction. His object should be to pronounce the tones with the full force and modulation at first, and to rely on future practice with the natives for making the unevenness and crudeness of his pronunciation to disappear. It must be remembered that a large majority of those who study to speak foreign languages never speak them exactly as the natives do; that refinement in the pronunciation which a native would admire is rarely attained by a foreigner, and even when it is mastered, it is only after a considerable degree of practice.

In the next place, the formation of words, or, as it is frequently called, "Word-building," claims our attention. If there exists in Chinese any process for the formation of words, by which a classification of them may take place, it must be for the interest of the student to know what it is. And this process, which does exist, we have endeavoured to indicate, and we leave it to the student himself to develope the principles which have been laid down on the formation of nouns and verbs. This part of Chinese grammar is vast in extent, and many years of discriminating study will be required to exhaust it. We are now but upon the threshold of the subject: Some earnest workers in this mine of the East will enter into it very much further, and will, we hope, complete the work.

And thirdly, the sentence in Chinese has been analysed with a view to a comparison of its parts, and to show the effect which certain forms of the sentence have upon the meaning and grammatical value of the words in it.

But without native text the student would find the abstract rules of grammar excessively dry and uninteresting. This want has been supplied, in some measure, by about forty pages of extracts from Chinese authors, explained at length, with translations and notes. To these we have added a third part, consisting of exercises, by which the student may acquire a practical acquaintance with Chinese prose composition, and an ability to speak the language with correctness. The fourth part of the Handbook consists of a dictionary of all the characters in general use, and it is hoped that this portion may prove

very useful to the beginner, and that the whole may answer the purpose for which it was intended.

One of the great difficulties which beset a beginner in a language like the Chinese is the enormous number of words and phrases which present themselves, without his being able to distinguish those best suited for the early stages of his course from the less common expressions which are used iu books only. And no simple tales and stories exist in Chinese, as in European languages, to supply him with a stock of useful words. The examples taken from books are seldom the expressions employed in common parlance; and unless the student is in a position to avail himself of native help and proper advice, he may labour for a long time without much profit. The object, therefore, in this work has been to bring together chiefly such expressions as are of frequent occurrence in every day life. Some terms which will be met with in the Dictionary will readily be distinguished by the significations given, as belonging to the higher classes of literature. It would be useless and absurd in a writer of an English grammar for foreigners to collect words from Chaucer and Spenser, or even from Shakespeare, in order to teach them the English language of the nineteenth century. To avoid such a mistake with respect to Chinese, we have selected the most common words, and have endeavoured to clear the path of the beginner, and to give a more simple exposition of the Chinese language than has hitherto appeared.

In the absence of a teacher, a few hints on the use of this work and on the method of study which it will be advisable to adopt will perhaps be acceptable to the beginner. His first object should be to master the system of orthography which is given in this work, and exercise himself in it, by reading aloud the list of syllables on page 5, or a page of the native text in Roman letter. Then the instructions relating to intonation should be thoroughly understood and applied practically by reading again a page of the Chrestomathy. should then commit to memory the words given to exemplify the tones (pp. 9-11, without the characters); and commence learning to read and write the elementary characters (pp. 19-28). And in learning Chinese characters, the student should on no account attempt too many at once. The first fifty radicals may be speedily acquired, but afterwards he will find that ten characters a day, thoroughly learnt, will test his powers; and at this rate, if it can be sustained, he will know three thousand characters at the end of a year; and if these include two thousand of those in common use, he will have made most satisfactory progress. In his choice of characters the Grammar will supply him first, and then the Chrestomathy. It is, moreover, desirable that couples and triples of characters, which form phrases, should be sought for and committed to memory, so as to store the mind with good expressions, cither for positive use, or that they may be readily recognised when uttered by native Chinese. But while pursuing this mere plodding study by memory, he must not neglect to read passages in the Chrestomathy (Part II), and make sentences upon the model of those given in the Exercises (Part III). And in the Chrestomathy some passages will be found better adapted than others

for this purpose: we should recommend him to begin by learning to read the syllables which stand for the characters in pages 8—12 of the native text (Haú-kiú chuén); and pages 27—30 (Mandarin Phrases). The syllables will be found in the Chrestomathy. The Mandarin Phrases should be committed to memory as soon as they are understood, and daily practice in copying the characters with the Chinese pencil should be persevered in.

Four hours a day ought to be the *minimum* of time given to the study during the first year; but this is only general advice, the time allotted to the subject and the method of study must depend on the ability and power of application in each individual;—

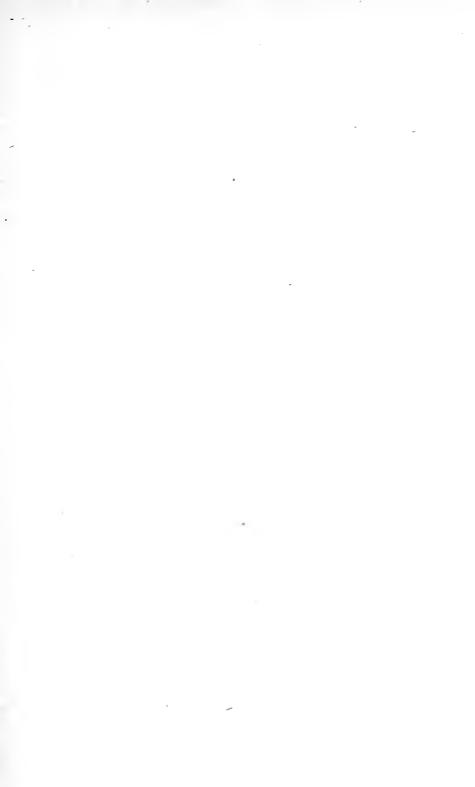
Sumite materiam vestris, qui discitis, æquam Viribus, et versate diu, quid ferre recusent, Quid valeant humeri.

Some apology is necessary for the occasional defectiveness of the Chinese type used in this work; although as a whole, and when the characters are in a perfect state, they are in very good proportion, and in some cases beautiful, a few are deficient in regularity of form. But thirty-four pages of the Chrestomathy, which were printed in Hongkong with the new type, will supply to the diligent student any deficiency which may be noticed in the Grammar.

In conclusion, the author, in common with all the friends of Anglo-Chinese literature, has to thank the Delegates of the Oxford University Press for their liberality in undertaking so expensive a work upon the ground of its utility alone; and the author has only to regret the errors which may have crept in to mar the work, and render it a less worthy object of such distinguished patronage. Unlike many works of this kind, it has had but one fostering hand; and the author has none to thank for friendly counsel or assistance. It will therefore, he trusts, be accepted with a generous criticism as the first work on the subject ever published in this country, and as having been prepared under very many disadvantages.

J. SUMMERS.

King's College, London, Jan. 1863.



INTRODUCTION.

 ${
m THE}$ language which we call Chinese is to the languages of eastern Asia what Sanskrit is to the Indian and to the Indo-Germanic stock of languages, or what Arabic is to some of the other eastern tongues; that is to say, Chinese is the parent, in some sense or degree, of Japanese, Corean, Cochin-Chinese, and Annamese, as well as of all the numerous dialects of China Proper. It is a sort of universal medium of communication throughout the vast territories of the emperor of China, which include Manchuria, Mongolia, Tibet, and other countries, which are together equal in extent to the whole of Europe. The use of Chinese in some of these countries is indeed confined to official communications, but by about 300,000,000 of the Chinese race it is spoken, and among these it forms the only colloquial medium of intercourse. In Japan, Annam, and some other regions, the written characters of China, and frequently the original words, have been so much changed by the literati, that they cannot be readily distinguished from the native characters and words *. In Japan, for example, the Chinese word t'ien, 'heaven,' is changed to ten; the nasal ng, at the end of some Chinese words, being always omitted, the syllable liang would become liau or lau. Sometimes the Chinese character will represent a mere syllable, at other times it is allowed to represent an idea, and to go under a Japanese name of perhaps two or three syllables, e.g. the Chinese character kia or ka $\forall \Box$, changed to $\not \supset$, is the common letter for the syllable ka, and scarcely ever carries with it the signification which the Chinese character bears (i.e. 'to add'); but the character ch'ang 📙, 'long,' is allowed to stand for the same idea in Japanese, its name however being changed to naga. Annamese the Chinese characters are more frequently taken for syllables alone, and they have undergone a variety of changes to adapt them for use in that language.

But notwithstanding these peculiar changes and modes of usage with respect to the Chinese language among the neighbouring nations, it stands

^{*} Numerous examples of similar changes both in the characters and the words employed in European languages might be given. Let the following suffice. The Slavonic sha $\{\{f\}\}$ (sh English) from the Hebrew shin \mathfrak{W} ; the letter D altered from the daleth \mathbb{T} and delta Δ . The F from the digamma F, &c. &c. Swedish somnar, 'to sleep,' from the Lat. somnire, i. e. a Teutonic termination is appended to a Latin root. The verbs stare, stand, stchen, from $\sigma \tau \dot{\alpha} \omega$.

pre-eminent as a classical language to them, and it occupies the same position as Latin and Greek do among Europeans. The philosophers, historians, and poets of China are read and studied diligently by the Japanese; their works are annotated and explained by writers of that country, and every child of respectable parentage begins the study of Chinese as soon as he goes to school, and carries it on simultaneously with the study of his native tongue. The works of Confucius and Mencius have exerted a mighty influence over the minds of all these eastern tribes. Confucius was to China and her tributaries what Aristotle has been to Europe. Would that his doctrines had been more energising and more fructifying! But we may attribute the comparative failure of Confucianism not to its author, but to the recipients of his instruction. Probably Confucius would have been an Aristotle had he lived in the west, and Aristotle a Confucius in the east. The πολιτική and ήθική of the one find their counterpart in the other, and while the Greek republics with their social and moral science have passed away, the Chinese empire still remains, a monument of political coherency and wisdom, in some respects at least, with the quality of marvellous endurance and steadfastness.

The antiquity of the Chinese language and written character invests them with peculiar interest, for in them may be discovered facts connected with the social and political history of a nation which flourished two thousand years before our era. It is remarkable too, that Chinese has suffered little change through this great period of time, compared with the mutations which have taken place in other languages. While the pronunciation of its written symbols has varied, and ever will vary in consequence of its want of an alphabetic system to represent the syllables which are uttered, the written characters have been altered scarcely at all during a period of two thousand years. Commencing with the rude pictures of objects within the sphere of life in those early times, as the Chinese mind developed, and the forms of government and society became fixed, the symbols to express authority and the various relationships of life were invented to correspond to the wants of public and private intercourse *.

^{*} Writing, which may be defined to be a representation of language and an exhibition of it to the eye, is divided into two kinds:—1. Notion-writing, which is independent of any given language, and conveys its meaning to the understanding immediately through the eye;—2. Sound-writing, which exhibits the sounds of a particular language, the understanding of which depends upon a knowledge of that language.

Notion-writing, again, is divided into two kinds, viz. Picture-writing and Figure-writing. The former, which is the most natural and probably the most ancient, consists in this, that the figure which is pictured to the eye represents the thing delineated, and by this figure are also symbolized the other notions, which admit of no immediate representation, such as the tropical and symbolical meanings of the object. The mere representation of the visible thing is called Curiological writing (from wipos, proprius), and to this belong most of the hieroglyphics (v. Champollion, Gram. Egyptienne. Paris, 1836. Fol. I. p. 3). Such a kind of writing the Chinese had originally (v. Kopp, Bilder und Schriften II. 66. Abcl-Rémusat, Gram. Chin. §§. 2. 4, 5), as had also the Mexicans. The same kind of writing however has another element,—the symbolic meaning, which rests upon a comparison of the real and possible representations with the intellectual and the abstract; and the thousandfold

These symbols are partly hieroglyphic and partly ideographic, that is, representations of objects or marks of notions. The hieroglyphs from which the forty thousand characters have been derived were originally signs of concrete notions; symbols for abstract terms and general notions were subsequently formed, as the Chinese mind developed and literature increased. The combinations, which can be effected by means of the four or five hundred elementary forms, give the Chinese language, as far as its written character is concerned, a power of expression unknown in other languages. And the simple and logical character of its formation renders it a far more efficient medium for the communication of ideas, and as an instrument of thought, than the languages of Europe.

The Chinese has a double advantage; it presents to the eye of the initiated the pictures of things, the general term derived from them, or the common notion deduced from a combination of elementary figures. It addresses to the ear, by the simple form of its constructions, the most complex notions and the most general expressions, without disturbing the necessary unity, which should always exist in the sentence; while it conveys in a few words, compactly arranged, the full idea with emphasis and logical precision. There is the language of the books and the language of conversation. These differ from each other, for, in writing, a few monosyllabic characters are made to express much, while, in speaking, many syllables are required; but they are the same in their principles of construction,—the same simplicity and logical order run through both.

combinations which are possible in this kind of writing approach the ridiculous. According to Diodor. (III. 4), the hawk among the Egyptians signified 'swiftness;' the crocodile, 'evil;' flies, 'impudence;' the eye, 'a watchman;' an outstretched hand, 'liberality;' a closed hand, 'greediness and avarice;' but most of the other tropical meanings of hieroglyphics rest upon more remote comparisons: e. g. the bee for 'the king;' sparrow-hawk for 'sublimity;' eye of the sparrow-hawk for 'vision' and 'contemplation;' the vulture, on account of its maternal love, for 'mother.' Indeed in many of those which are called enigmatical hieroglyphs, the reason for the combination is sometimes doubtful and sometimes wholly unknown; as when the ostrich feather stands for 'justice,' because all the feathers of the wing of the ostrich are of equal size; or the palm branch for 'the year,' because the palm tree brings forth every year regularly twelve branches. Among the Chinese, two men, one following the other, stands for the verb 'to follow;' the sun and moon for 'light;' a man on a mountain for a 'hermit;' a woman, a hand, and a broom, for a 'matron.'

The other kind of Notion-writing,—Figure-writing,—expresses the notion by means of figures taken arbitrarily, which have no similarity to the thing intended. A rude example of this kind were the gay-coloured threads (quipos) of the Peruvians, who understood how to knot them and to twist them in so many ways (v. Götting. Hist. Magaz. III. p. 422. Lehrgeb. der Diplom. II. 305). The Chinese have a very complete system of this kind; they have from 20 to 30 thousand characters, which may be reduced to 214 radicals (called keys). To the same category belong also the technical marks used by medical men, and perhaps also the astronomical signs for the planets and the signs of the zodiac; while such figures often seem to be only arbitrary marks, they really have proceeded from hieroglyphics, in which the figures have been so very much contracted and mutilated that they have lost all resemblance to the original object intended to be represented (v. Ersch and Grüber's Encyclopædic, art. Paleographic by Gesenius, of which the above is a translation).

An eminent writer on logic observes, that "the chief impediments to the correct performance of the process of reasoning lie in the defects of expression *," but we think that such defects will not be found in Chinese, while no difficulty will be experienced in forming a complete apparatus for this or for any other science as soon as the native mind becomes alive to the importance of more vigorous and systematic thinking. The subtle distinctions and exact meanings, which may be referred to a vast number of Chinese words, prove the analytic character of the language, as does also the complexity of the syntax and the arrangement of words and sentences,-a remedy, as it were, for the If inflexions have arisen by the agglutination of separate want of inflexions. and distinct words,-by pronouns, prepositions, &c., being placed after and joined to the words to which they refer; if they were produced, not merely by a scientific process, but by a vulgar and careless pronunciation of the words, and so were agglutinated, the reason why Chinese has never undergone this process, and obtained inflexions, appears to be, because the original terms, which were employed as the names of objects and relations of things, were so definite and distinct from each other, and the characters, which at a very early period represented them, so unique and separate, that union of two of the latter being impossible, two of the former could not well be agglutinated. Be this as it may, the Chinese, without any sort of inflexion in its words, affords a remarkable specimen of the power of syntactical arrangement to express the multitudinous variations of human thought. Instead of being composed, as is frequently supposed, of a vast number of arbitrary and complicated symbols, the characters of the Chinese language are compounded of very simple elements, which carry along with them into their derivatives something of their own meaning, while each generally preserves its figure unchanged. elementary characters supply the place of an alphabet,—but it is an alphabet of ideas, not of sounds. With it may be produced thousands of different radical words, and with these words hundreds of thousands of compounded words have been and may be formed. It is not even necessary to become acquainted with more than four or five thousand of these radical words and characters to enable the literary man to understand, with etymological accuracy, the meaning of myriads of expressions which are, or may be, formed by them. The task to the foreign student is triffing, when he considers that these four thousand characters are systematically derived from two hundred and fourteen simple figures, and that when these are mastered, all other difficulties vanish entirely, or diminish to such a degree that the rest of his labour is easy and pleasant. The process however of derivation and composition is not without some arbitrary and, at first sight, absurd deviations from rules, but such exceptions are found in every language, and we do not see that the Chinese exhibits many more of them than our own tongue.

Dr. Morrison's view of Chinese etymology to be derived from the hieroglyphic

^{*} See "Outline of the Laws of Thought" by Dr. Thomson, Provost of Queen's College, Oxford. 12°. London, 1849, p. 42.

forms of characters is worth noting *: "The ancients formed characters from things; these gradually came to be used metaphorically to denote the operations of the mind, and to serve as auxiliaries in speech. As the number of such characters increased, it was necessary to modify them again in order to distinguish them. Thus $ch\bar{\imath}$ was originally $ch\bar{\imath}$ -t'saù $\dot{}$ (i. e. 'the chi grass,' now a particle of relation, demonstration, &c.), $h\bar{\imath}$ was $h\bar{\imath}$ was $h\bar{\imath}$ hū- $h\bar{\imath}$ - $h\bar{\imath}$ (i. e. 'the breath issuing forth in exclamation,' now a particle of interrogation), and $h\bar{\imath}$ was $h\bar{\imath}$ was $h\bar{\imath}$ (i. e. 'a kite or fish-hawk,' now used as a final particle of assertion, interrogation, &c.). When the etymology of a word or the various metaphorical changes of a hieroglyphic can be traced, it is amusing; but the present usage alone can fix what the meaning of a word is at the present time.

"Assuming the truth of the above critic's remark, it may be inferred, that many characters are so mutilated or increased that to trace the gradual changes up to their original form is hopeless." While these remarks indicate the scope which Chinese affords for the sound discrimination of the ingenious mind, the student who follows such an authority as Dr. Morrison will not be discouraged on finding his efforts frequently unavailing to fathom the sense of a Chinese character, and to trace its origin and history.

The extent of Chinese literature and its praises cannot be expressed more fully than in the enthusiastic description of Prof. Abel-Rémusat, a translation of which we will subjoin: "There are few Europeans," he says, "who would not smile at hearing one speak of the geometry of the Chinese, of their astronomy, or of their natural history; although it is true that the progress, which these sciences have made amongst us during the last two centuries, causes us to dispense with having recourse to the knowledge of those distant nations, ought we therefore to be ignorant of their present state, and especially of what their former state was amongst a nation which has never ceased to cultivate and honour them? The proportion of the right-angled triangle was known in China B. C. 2200; and the works of Yu the Great, to restrain two streams equal in impetuosity and almost in breadth to the great rivers of America; to direct the waters of 100 rivers, and to guide their flowing over a space of ground of more than 100,000 square leagues, are more than sufficient proof If the astronomical and physical theories of these people are defective, their catalogue of eclipses, of occultations, of comets, and of aërolites are not the less interesting; and if people maintain that the Chinese make mistakes in their calculations, at least we must confess that they have, like us, observant eyes.

"Besides this, rural and domestic economy is sufficiently perfected amongst them for them to teach us many useful things; of this, at least, we are assured by those who have made a study of this science. As to their descriptions of

^{*} Cf. Chinese Dictionary, Part I. vol. I. p. 34, where Dr. Morrison translated the above passage from a native author.

natural beings, since nothing can supply their place whilst Europeans have not free access to their country, they are not to be despised from a people so exact and circumstantial: and I hope to prove by several extracts from their books on botany and zoology that the writers in this department are as much above the Latin naturalists, or those of the Middle Ages, as they are inferior to Linnæus, Jussieu, or Des Fontaines. But if we pass to polite literature, philosophy, and history, some Chinese, in these subjects, may even set us an example.

"An immense fund of literature, the fruit of 4000 years of assiduous efforts and labours; eloquence and poetry enriched by the beauties of the picturesque language, which preserve to the imagination all its colours, metaphors, allegory, and allusion, all combining to form the most smiling, energetic, or imposing pictures; on the other side, the most vast and authentic annals which ever came from the hands of men, unfolding to our view actions almost unknown, not only of the Chinese, but of the Japanese, Coreans, Tartars, Tibetans, and of the inhabitants on the peninsula beyond the Ganges; unfolding the mysterious dogmas of Buddha, or those of the sect of the Tauists, or consecrating, in short, the eternal principles and the philosophic politics of the school of Confucius:—these are the objects which Chinese books present to the student, who, without leaving Europe, may wish to travel in imagination to these distant countries. More than 5000 volumes have been collected, at great expense, in the Royal Library; their titles have scarcely been read by Fourmont; a few historical works have been opened by De Guignes and by Des Hauterayes; all the rest still await readers and translators *."

These are the words of one who in his day stood high among the Orientalists of Europe, and whose opinions will always be regarded with respect by the student of Chinese. M. Rémusat had actual experience on the subject, and had read much of the literature on which he dilated. His evidence is worthy of our full credit, and, while so much has been written and said which is adverse to China and the Chinese, his testimony calls for our honest acceptance, for he views China through the writings of its great minds, and not, as too many do, by the exhibitions of some of its vulgar rulers or the acts of some low unruly mob. Even from those who should understand the subject well, we too often hear statements which, although they have some appearance of truth, are yet unfair, because they are based on insufficient grounds, but they tell nevertheless to the prejudice of this people and their language. instance, it has been stated that "this language does not afford much scope for oratorical display," a view which we consider very erroneous, for Chinese is just that kind of language which leaves the speaker free from the technicalities of grammar and of artificial forms of expression, and allows him to rise in sublimity by the power of allusion and the various figures of the rhctor's art, and through the various styles of composition to affect his hearers; or to descend into the vulgar colloquial, and raise a smile at his antagonist's expense, or ridicule the cavils of a supposed objector.

^{*} V. Mélanges Asiatiques par Abel-Rémusat, vol. II. p. 14.

It cannot be asserted that the speeches of the Chinese ministers of state exhibit much oratorical power, but there can be no reason why the Chinese should not display as much power in this way as did Demosthenes himself, if they once fell into the circumstances which would call it forth, and were gifted with the same argumentative powers as he was. The fault is in the mind of China, and not in the language. When the Chinese mind is elevated, the language will be found to be not only sufficient for the requirements of this development, but also a valuable agent in the work of its advancement.

But it will be necessary to notice the dialects of which Chinese is composed. The mother-tongue, which is every where expressed by the antique characters, finds a different utterance in every province of the empire. So various are the dialectal changes that the inhabitants of adjacent provinces cannot understand each other. If a native of Canton meet with a native of Shanghai he can communicate with him only by some language common to them both, or by the learned characters, which are used in books. The dialects (for there are several) between Canton and Shanghai differ very much from each other. They have, it is true, a common basis and groundwork; but the pronunciation of syllables in them, especially of diphthongal sounds, varies considerably, though these changes are in accordance with the general laws of such variations in other tongues. Their idioms, moreover, are peculiar, and these therefore present a further obstacle to the communication of ideas. The comparative tables of dialects will explain our meaning in some degree.

It must not be supposed that these dialects are so different as to present to a native a formidable task in the acquisition of several of them. Native merchants and traders frequently have a smattering of three or four; but we think that foreigners are in a position to acquire a more exact knowledge of them than natives themselves. As they are all derived from the same written language, so when this is acquired, or at least when the mandarin or court dialect is learnt, the others may be mastered with comparative ease, after a few months' practice. The foreigner in representing by Roman letters the precise sounds of the language, has an advantage over the native, who cannot do so, unless he learn the system of European orthography. The European soon perceives that certain letters of his Roman alphabet undergo regular changes in the different dialects, and this affords him an immense assistance. For example, he may observe that the primary vowel sounds, a, i, u (ah, ee, oo), generally remain in the language of each province,—thus pa in Shanghai remains pa in Canton; ki in Nanking remains ki in Peking, with a little stronger aspiration; ku in Ningpo is ku every where else: but, on the contrary, kai in Mandarin becomes koi in Canton and ke in Shanghai; yau in Mandarin becomes yiu in Canton and yo (yaw) in Shanghai. Thus he finds that only the diphthongs (that is, those sounds formed by the combination of two primary vowels) are affected by dialectal changes. The same fact in articulate sounds is shown in our own words clause, pause, &c., where the diphthong au, which is formed of the two primary vowels a and u, and is generally represented by the secondary vowel o, has been changed in course of time to the sound of o in order.

regular changes suggest the importance of having but one system of orthography for writing Chinese in Roman letter, so that various dialects may be acquired with greater facility. With how much greater ease, than under the present systems, would French, German, and the other European tongues be learnt, if only one system of writing existed, and but one uniform value were given to the letters employed!

It is no longer necessary to advise the public of the importance of a knowledge of Chinese to those who are connected with China; now that the whole empire is, by the late treaty, declared open to travellers with passports, the language is indispensable to those who would penetrate into the interior. The advantages to the merchant, the missionary, the traveller, and the scientific explorer, of an acquaintance with the Chinese language, cannot well be overrated. And when the vast territories under Chinese rule, and their relations to Great Britain are considered, the perfect medium of communication, which this language would afford, renders the attainment of it an object of primary importance. With this object in view, the cultivation of it should be commenced before leaving this country, that no time may be lost in entering upon a work which will require so much time and arduous effort to accomplish. Very much may be done by the young student before he leaves England, especially in the acquisition of the style of the books, and also in some degree the language of conversation. The written characters of the Chinese may be acquired any where by means of books alone, and, as the pronunciation of these written symbols is exceedingly simple, considerable progress may be made, with a little assistance, in learning such simple sentences as have the stamp of being native, but he should avoid those which are made up to suit foreign expressions. Where native teachers, good grammars, and perfect dictionaries of Chinese are wanting, this language can only be studied to perfection in its native land. Some knowledge however may and ought to be acquired under a European tutor, who can generally explain far better than a native Chinese the difficulties which will beset a beginner. The plan which we would suggest for cementing our new relations with China, and removing the numerous misconceptions which exist on both sides, is the establishment of a College in this country for the education of young Chinese in English, and for affording to young Englishmen the means of acquiring the rudiments of Chinese; and also the foundation of a College in Peking, or in some other city of China, for the preparation of such Chinese youths in the rudiments of English, and for the instruction of English youths in the Chinese language. Each College should have two departments, and these should be directed by English and Chinese The Chinese youths would cultivate the languages and sciences of Europe to the best advantage in England, while the English youths in China would learn perfectly, as natives do, the Chinese language, and would make themselves acquainted with the products and the resources of China, and gain a knowledge too of the home and foreign policy of the Chinese. Such an arrangement would be productive of most beneficial results. plan of an Anglo-Chinese College was carried out at Malacca about thirty-

five years ago, and much good was done thereby, but from its position out of China and from a deficiency in means, less was accomplished than might have been under more favourable circumstances. For an institution of this kind to succeed, it should receive the countenance and support of the governments of both countries; but the education should not be gratuitous, as it would be desirable to obtain the better class of boys for instruction; and the relatives of such youths would be in a position to defray the expenses of their education, and thus lessen the amount of expenditure on the part of the promoters of the plan. But while the civil war in China is raging, and the government of that country is so insecure, no extensive plans of amelioration can be carried out. As commerce and Christianity advance, civilization and peace will follow in the steps of the missionary and the merchant. In the meantime it is not from the partial knowledge of European languages in the case of a few natives that much good may be anticipated, but the full and frequent dissemination of religious and political truth, by means of translations into Chinese, will affect the national mind, which is now very fully alive to the influence of Europe on the well-being of the "Middle kingdom."

Many such translations have already been made within the last few years. Improved versions of the Holy Scriptures, and of standard religious publications, have been issued in China. Valuable treatises on astronomy, algebra, arithmetic, and geometry, natural philosophy and political economy have been turned into Chinese recently*. Many more are however needed, especially on the subjects of European history, the science of mind and the laws of thought.

^{*} Such are Herschel's Astronomy and De Morgan's Algebra, and works on Arithmetic and other subjects translated by A. Wylie, Esq.; works on Geography, the History of England, by the Rev. William Muirhead; several works on Anatomy, Physiology, and Medicine by Dr. Benjamin Hobson; treatises on Electricity, the Laws of Storms, and other subjects by Dr. Macgowan; and various educational works by the Rev. W. Lobscheid.



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PART II. CHINESE CHRESTOMATHY.

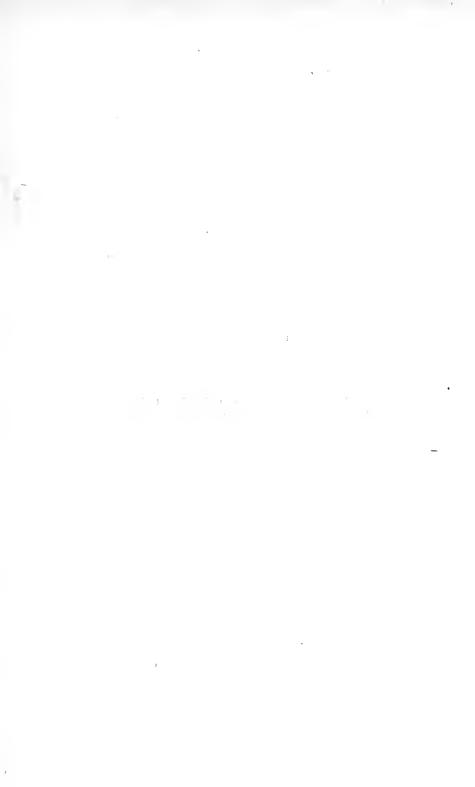
A short introduction to Chinese literature.

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List of Chinese works arranged in classes: (1) Ethics, politics, and mental
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S ź- $sh\bar{u}$ (text, pp. 3, 4, 5), L án- $y\hat{u}$, S háng-máng, H iá-máng Pages 28–35.
Shíng-yű (text, pp. 6, 7)
Haú-k'iû chuến (text, pp. 8-12) Pages 40-51.
Shwiii-hù chuến (text, pp. 13-16)
Sān-kwŏ chí (text, pp. 17-20)
Æsop's Fables, translated (text, pp. 21, 22) Pages 66-70.
Lin's letter to Queen Victoria, translated (text. pp. 23, 24) Pages 70-76.

Supplementary treaty, translated (text, p. 25)	Pages 76-78.
A notice and a petition, translated (text, p. 26)	Pages 78-80.
Mandarin dialogues, translated (text, pp. 27-30)	Pages 80-86.
Extract from the Ching-yīn-tsüí-yaú, translated (text, p. 31)	Pages 86-88.
Epistolary style, translations (text, p. 32)	Pages 88-90.
Poetical extracts, translated (text, p. 33)	Pages 90-94.
Proverbs, translated (text, p. 34)	Pages 94-96.
Extracts from the Ching-yīn-tsüí-yaú, translated (text, litho. p	p. 9, 10)
	Pages 96-98.
Extract from the $S\bar{a}n$ - $kw\delta$ $ch\hat{\imath}$, translated (text, litho. pp. 11–13) I	Pages 98-103.
Æsop's Fables, translated (text, litho, p. 14) Pr	ages 104, 105.

PART I.

CHINESE GRAMMAR.

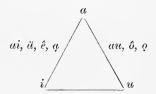


CHAP. I. ETYMOLOGY.

SECT. I. ARTICULATE SOUNDS AND THEIR SYMBOLS.

§. I. Elementary sounds and their orthography.

- 1. The Chinese language does not possess, like the European languages, a series of letters with which to express elementary sounds; nor are figures employed to represent syllables merely, as in the syllabaries of the Japanese and Manchu languages. It is therefore necessary in the outset to lay before the student a clear system of orthography, in order that he may acquire as speedily as possible a correct pronunciation of the Chinese characters; and we propose making use of the Roman alphabet for this purpose.
- 2. The articulate sounds of the human voice are produced by the united action of the breath and the organs of speech, the lips, the tongue, and the larynx. As these organs are the same every where, the articulations of every language must partake of many sounds in common; and though they may be modified by the shape of the organs and other circumstances, they are fundamentally the same. It follows, therefore, that in learning a foreign tongue a consideration of the elementary sounds of the human voice, and the exhibition of them in that tongue, will facilitate the progress by placing the subject from the first upon a reasonable basis.
- 3. There are three primary vowel sounds, a, i, u, and from these the other vowels and the diphthongs spring *. This fact has been proved by the absence of the \check{e} and \check{o} in the Sanskrit, and by the vowels of the Hebrew in its ancient form being only n aleph, n yod, and n vav. These primary or fundamental vowels, with the vowel-sounds derived from them, are thus exhibited:



- a) By the union of a and i the diphthong ai is produced, as ai in aisle; then by gradually closing and contracting the organs we form the German \ddot{a} , the flattened a in shame, and the open French \hat{e} in $for\hat{e}t$, $m\hat{e}me$; to these may be added a with a dot beneath to represent the obscure sound like ir, er, and o, in Sir, her, son, respectively.
- β) By the union of a and u the diphthong au is formed, as ou in plough or au in Baum (German); then by contraction we have \bar{o} long in no, nos (French); to which may be added ϱ with a dot beneath to represent the

^{*} It should be understood from the first that the pronunciation of these vowels is the German or Italian; ah, ee, oo in English.

sound of o in order or au in clause. In the ancient Arabic, ai and au were used instead of e and o. So in the Greek and Latin, $Ka\hat{i}\sigma a\rho$ became Casar, $\theta u\hat{\nu}\mu a$ in the Ionic dialect was $\theta\hat{\nu}\mu a$, a case exactly similar to that which takes place in Chinese, and which will be found noticed under the Comparative Table of Dialects. The modern pronunciation of the French words lait, mais, aussi, illustrates the same facts, as does also the vulgar German $\bar{\nu}ch$ for auch.

- γ) By uniting i and u we produce ew in yew, hew, new, &c.; and in like manner any variety of simple vowel sound or diphthongal compound may be formed with the three vowels a, i, u*.
- 4. We shall employ the letters of the Roman alphabet to express Chinese sounds; and the student should make himself thoroughly acquainted with the system of orthography given below. An absolutely true pronunciation can only be attained by long and regular practice, by imitating a teacher, and by a residence among the Chinese; yet, by careful attention to the advice here given, considerable advance may be made with the aid of books alone.
- T. T. Meadows, Esq., one of H. B. Majesty's Consuls in China, proposed a new orthography several years ago, and made some very just remarks on the obscure vowel sounds, with especial reference to their delicate modifications in the Pekin dialect. (See Desultory Notes on China. London: Allen, 1847.)

The variations however in the pronunciation of native scholars speaking the same dialect are many, whilst all are sufficiently correct. Just as distinctions may be drawn between the pronunciation of individual scholars in this country and considerable difference be found to exist in their pronunciation of single words; but to alter the spelling of English words because the letter a is sounded somewhat broader or made a little longer by one than by another, would lead to endless changes. To illustrate this point—the German \ddot{a} is not the same as the English a in shame or ay in play, nor is the German eu accurately expressed by oy in joy, toy; yet these examples may stand in a Grammar for Englishmen, because each answers so nearly to the foreign sound as to be a sufficient guide to the pronunciation, though the French \hat{e} in $m\hat{e}me$ and the eui in feuille correspond more nearly to the German \ddot{a} and eu.

5. The quantity of each of the vowels in the following table is *long* in all positions which allow of it; that is to say, in some rare positions they will be short; as, for instance, when affected by the $j\tilde{\imath}$ -sh $\bar{\imath}$ ng (902, 2291) or 'entering tone,' which is always designated by the ordinary mark \circ for a short vowel.

The pronunciation of the short vowels is exemplified by the words enclosed in brackets.

The short \check{o} , which should correctly be written with the dot beneath, will be without the dot, as the corresponding short of \bar{o} long rarely, if ever, occurs.

The equivalent of each vowel is also given according to Dr. Morrison's system of spelling, as the student will have to refer to his Dictionary.

^{*} For further information on this subject the student may refer to Karl F. Becker's Organism der Sprache; Jacob Grimm's Geschichte der Deutschen Sprache; and Wilhelm von Humboldt's work, l'eber die Kawi Sprache, vol. I. Einleitung.

$The\ system\ of\ orthography\ adopted.$

	I. The vowels, simple and combined.							
Form.	Morr.	The value of each illustrated by examples.						
	ă uh o ŏ aw - oo ŭh	i in police; i in wir (Germ.); i in aussi (Fr.); (bŭt.) a in lame; ü in fühig (Germ.); ê in même (Fr.); (bĕt.) a in father; a in darf (Germ.); a in pas (Fr.); (bĕt.) a in organ; e in haben (Germ.); ue in que (Fr.); (bŭt.) o in no; o in oder (Germ.); ô in côté (Fr.); (nŏt.) (Canton D. and Shanghai D.) o in order; aw in law. (Shanghai D.) ö in Löwe (Germ.); nearly œu in sœur (Fr.) u in rule; u in du (Germ.); ou in vous (Fr.); (bŭll.) u in lune (Fr.); ü in Mühe (Germ.); (eu in peut-être.)						
ia iă io iŏ iu iŭ ei eu ai	eay ëĕ	ie in pied (Fr.); yea (Eng.); (yĕ in yesterday.) ia in lia, plia (Fr.); ja (Germ.); (yĕ in yankee.) io in million (Fr.); (Shanghai D.); (yĕ in yacht.) ew in hew, yew; (jĕ in juchhe! (Germ.)) ei in sein (Germ.); ie in pie (Eng.) e + u, peculiar. French MSS. would have éou. ai in aisle; so iai = eae in Morr. ow in cow; au in Frau (Germ.); so iau = eaou in Morr. (Canton D.) oi in voice. (Canton D.) u+i; ui in ruin. eui in feuille (Fr.); eu in Beute (Germ.)						

		II. The consonants, single and combined.
Form.	Morr.	The value of each illustrated by examples.
b ch d f g h j k l m n		as in English, not in Mand. D. (in Shang. D. and Hok. D.) ch in hatch; chw in hatchway; chh in catch him. (Shang. D. Ningpo D. &c.) as in English; dj=Eng. j. f in fit. The tone in some dialects changes it to v. g in good always, never g in gin. h in heart; before i and ü it is a strong aspiration, nearly sh. j in jeune (Fr.); z in azure (Eng.); ju or jw. k in king; kw as qu in queen. l in line; lw as in bulwark. m in mine; mw as in homeward. n in nine; nw as in inward; ng in anger.
p	p	p in pine.
r	r	r in run; rather more rolling than the English r. s in see; sw as in swain.
$egin{array}{c c} s \\ sh \end{array}$	$s \\ sh$	sh in shine; shw as in a rash wish.
t	t.	t in tiny; tw as in twist; ts as in wits; tsw as in Cotswold.
v		v in vine (Shang. and Ning. D.)
w	w	w in way, or v in vine.
y	y	y in you.
ž	z	z in squeeze, $sz=s+z$, i. e. the hissing sound of s , then the buzzing sound of z , and in $tsz=ts+z$.

6. Exercise for reading.

Ts r̄ng ts du k'r lar, kiáu har-tsz-mạn, saú-saú tr, kiau-kiau hwū, gaú shwùi sr liên, pau wàn haù ch a k'r-k'r; mǔ-yiù sz tr shr-heu, k'ān-k'ān shū siè-siè tsz; sān-liàng-kó sz-wạn pang-yiù, tsŏ kó shī, hiá kó wer-kr, kiái-kiái mạn-ạr. tsiù k'ò-r kwó-tr jr-tsz liau.

§. 2. Syllables and their intonation.

- 7. After having thus considered elementary sounds and the symbols suited to express them, we naturally proceed to view them as they are united to form syllables. The characters of the Chinese do not represent elementary sounds or articulations, but each character stands for an entire syllable. The syllable then in Chinese is simply the name given to a symbol; that is, each character is expressed by a syllable, the sound of which cannot be discovered from the composition or formation of the character. In fact, the same characters have different names in the different provinces in which they are read, just as the Arabic numerals are called by different names in the various states of Europe and Asia.
- 8. Every syllable in the Court dialect ends with a vowel or nasal, but commonly with a vowel. The dialectic peculiarities may be seen in the Comparative Table.
- 9. The Chinese divide the syllable into two parts, the initial and the final; and they define the pronunciation of characters by a process called fan-tse in the final of the syllable fan-tse is always explained in this way; e.g. the sound of the character is always explained in this way; e.g. the sound of the character is explained thus: chi shing tse, chi and shing being cut in the above way into ch-ing, which is the pronunciation of the character ching.
- 10. The number of different Chinese syllables is between four and five hundred. In the Mandarin or Court dialect—the Kwān-hwá Titl—there are four hundred and ten syllables, besides those with aspirates, as thien or tien. They are here arranged in alphabetic order, and the student will do well to read them as an exercise in orthoëpy.

Table of the syllables in the Kwān-hwá.

1 a	13 chĕ	25 chiii	37 fu	49 <i>gŏ</i>	61 hiă	73 hiun
2 an	14 chen	²⁶ chung	38 fit	50 hai	62 hiai	74 hiung
3 ar	15 cheu	27 chwa	39 fung	51 han	63 hiang	75 ho
4 au	16 chi	28 chwai	4º gai	52 han	64 hiau	76 hŏ
5 cha	17 chi	29 chwang	41 gan	53 hang	65 hiĕ	77 hu
6 chă	18 chin	30 fă	42 gan	54 hang	66 hien	78 hii
7 chai	19 ching	31 fan	43 gang	55 hau	67 hin	79 hii
8 chan	20 chŏ	32 fan	44 gang	56 hĕ	68 hing	80 hung
9 chan	21 chu	33 fang	45 gau	57 heu	69 hiŏ	81 hwa
10 chang	22 chŭ	34 feu	46 geu	58 hi	70 hiu	82 hwă
11 chau	23 chii	35 fi	47 gĭ	59 hr	71 hiŭ	83 hwai
12 che	24 chuen	36 fo	48 go	60 hia	72 hiuen	84 hwan

10-7	722 7 * [170 7.8	226 1	272 -7 ×	210	265 4
85 hwan	132 kiun	179 lü	226 niŏ	²⁷³ shă	319 swan	365 tsu
86 hwang	133 kiung	180 lüi	²²⁷ niu	274 shai	320 82	366 tsŭ
87 hwang	134 ko	181 lung	228 no	275 shan	321 ta	367 <i>tsü</i>
88 hwŏ	135 kŏ	182 lwan	²²⁹ nŏ	276 shạn	3 ²² tă	368 tsü
89 hwŭ	136 ku	183 ma	230 nu	277 shang	323 tai	369 <i>tsüi</i>
9º hwiii	137 kŭ	184 mă	²³¹ nŭ	²⁷⁸ shau	324 tan	370 tsung
91 i	138 kii	185 mai	²³² nü	279 she	325 tạn	371 tswan
92 jan	139 kŭ	186 man	233 nüi	280 shĕ	326 tang	372 tsz
93 jang	140 kung	¹⁸⁷ mạn	²³⁴ nung	281 shen	327 tạng	373 tu
94 <i>jau</i>	141 kwa	188 mang	²³⁵ nwan	²⁸² sheu	328 tau	374 tŭ
95 je	142 kwă	189 mang	236 o	²⁸ 3 shi	329 tĕ	375 <i>tüi</i>
96 j ĕ	143 kwai	190 mau	² 37 ŏ	²⁸ 4 shĭ	330 teu	376 tung
97 jen	14+ kwan	¹⁹¹ me	$^{238} pa$	²⁸ 5 shin	331 <i>ti</i>	377 twan
98 jeu	¹ 45 kwạn	¹⁹² mĕ	²³⁹ pă	286 shing	332 ti	378 ung
99 j ĭ	$^{146}kwang$	193 mei	240 pai	²⁸⁷ shŏ	333 tiau	379 wa
100jin	147 kwang	¹⁹⁴ meu	$^{241} pan$	²⁸⁸ shu	334 <i>tie</i>	380 wă
ioijing	148 kwei	195 mi	242 pạn	²⁸ 9 shŭ	335 tiĕ	381 wai
102 <i>j</i> ŏ	149 kwo	196 mĭ	243 pang	²⁹⁰ shwa	336 tien	382 wan
103ju	150 kwŏ	197 miau	244 pạng	²⁹¹ shwă	337 ting	383 wan
104 јй	151 kwă	198 mie	²⁴⁵ pau	²⁹² shwai	338 tiu	384 wang
105 juen	152 la	199 mien	²⁴⁶ pĕ	²⁹³ shwang	339 to	385 wei
106 jüi	153 <i>lă</i>	200 min	247 pei	²⁹⁴ shwŏ	340 <i>tŏ</i>	386 wi
107 $jung$	154 lai	201 ming	²⁴⁸ peu	²⁹⁵ shwiii	341 <i>tsă</i>	387 wo
108 kai	155 lan	²⁰² miu	² 49 <i>pi</i>	296 si	342 <i>tsai</i>	3 ⁸⁸ wŏ
109 kan	156 lạn	²⁰³ mo	250 pĭ	²⁹⁷ sĭ	343 <i>tsan</i>	$3^{89} wu$
110 kan	157 $lang$	²⁰⁴ mŏ	251 piau	²⁹⁸ siang	344 <i>tsan</i>	39° wŭ
III kang	158 lạng	²⁰ 5 mu	²⁵² piĕ	²⁹⁹ siau	345 tsang	391 ya
112 kạng	159 lau	²⁰⁶ mŭ	² 53 pien	300 sie	34 ⁶ tsąng	392 yă
113 kau	160 lĕ	²⁰ 7 mung	254 pin	301 siĕ	347 <i>tsau</i>	393 yai
114 ke	¹⁶¹ leu	²⁰⁸ mwan	255 ping	302 sien	34 ⁸ <i>tsĕ</i>	39 4 yan
115 keu	162 li	209 na	256 piu	$3^{\circ}3 sin$	349 <i>tseu</i>	395 <i>yang</i>
116 ki	163 lĭ	210 nă	257 po	304 sing	35° <i>tsi</i>	396 yan
117 ki	164 liang	211 nai	258 pŏ	3°5 siŏ	351 <i>tsĭ</i>	397 ye
118 kia	165 liau	212 nan	259 pu	306 siu	352 tsiang	398 yĕ
119 kiă	166 liĕ	²¹ 3 nạn	260 рй	307 siŭ	353 tsiau	399 <i>yen</i>
120 kiai	¹⁶⁷ lien	214 nang	261 pung	308 siuen	35∔ <i>tsie</i>	4∞ yĭ
121 kiang	168 lin	215 nạng	262 pwan	309 siun	355 tsiĕ	401 yin
122 kiau	169 ling	216 nau	263 să	310 80	356 tsien	402 ying
123 kie	170 liŏ	217 neu	264 sai	311 80	357 tsin	403 yiu
124 kiĕ	171 liu	218 ni	265 san	312 su	358 tsing	404 yŏ
125 kien	172 liŭ	219 nĭ	266 san	313 SIL	359 tsiŏ	405 yu
126 kin	173 liuen	220 niang	267 sang	314 sii	360 tsiu	406 yŭ
127 king	174 lo	221 niau	268 sạng	$3^{15} s \check{u}$	361 tsiuen	407 yii
128 kiŏ	175 lo	²²² niĕ	²⁶⁹ sau	316 sün	362 tsiun	408 yuen
129 kiu	176 lu	223 nien	270 sĕ	317 sung	363 tso	409 yün
130 kiŭ	177 lŭ	224 nin	271 seu	318 <i>siii</i>	$364 ts\ddot{o}$	410 yung
131 kiuen	178 lü	²²⁵ ning	²⁷² sha			

Morrison and others urh, eul, il, irr, ri. It represents a peculiar sound, probably of modern origin, as it is not found in the Imperial Dictionary of K'anghi fill. The characters it expresses are called i in the Canton and some other dialects, and it rhymes with i in the Shi-king fill fill fill or Classic Odes.

- 12. The articulate sounds in every language must have preceded the written character. There is no positive proof that the syllabic sounds in present use in China are of very great antiquity, though this may be inferred from one or two facts. a. The two hundred and fourteen elementary characters called Radicals, contain one hundred and fifty of the above-mentioned four hundred syllables; and this is a large proportion unless we suppose that they had those sounds attached to them in a very early stage of the language, when, as yet, but few other characters had been invented.
- b. The *Primitives*, one thousand seven hundred in number, another set of elementary characters, which, with the Radicals, make up the body of material out of which the thirty or forty thousand characters have been constructed, contain nearly every syllable found in the language.
- 13. Every syllable in Chinese is uttered with a certain intonation or modulation of the voice, which is commonly called its 'tone' by Europeans; by natives the tone is called Shīng-yīn F; i. e. tone-sound (v. 2291).
- 14. The tones are of essential service in adding distinctness to the expression; in many cases a phrase would be quite unintelligible without its proper tones, and often convey an entirely different idea from the one intended.
- 15. The difficulty of learning these tones has been much exaggerated, and the published opinions of some who had a right to be heard on subjects connected with the Chinese language, have tended to confirm misconceptions. We shall here endeavour to state clearly their nature, and give directions for their acquirement.
- 16. In the first place, the tones are not mere accents or the elevated utterance of syllables in words, nor accent, as when we speak of the French accent, Scotch accent, a point in which every language differs, nor the wayward and uncertain intonation of words and phrases as we hear frequently in animated dialogue and oratory; but they are certain fixed intonations, peculiar to each character when uttered, and they change only when euphony would be disturbed by their accustomed sound being retained.
- 17. The Chinese Shīng-yīn are from four to eight of these latter intonations proper to the language of the orator, and they add as much force and vigour to the Chinese tongue as they do to our own. Only one of them is peculiar and uncommon, and this is a sort of whine or drawl; but in union with others in the same word it assimilates in some degree to the general or predominating tone, and so loses its unpleasant sound.

18. The number of the tones appears to have been four in the first instance, but in the various dialects of China they rise to seven and eight. They are as follows: wast

— 1. The p'ing-shing 4 (2291) 'even, level tone.'

2. The shàng-shīng (2291) 'rising tone.' / 3. The k'ú-shīng + (2291) 'departing tone.'

4. The ji-sh $\bar{i}ng \bigwedge$ (2291) 'entering tone.'

By uttering these four at a low pitch of the voice and then at a higher, eight different intonations are produced; those pitched high being denominated shàng | 'upper,' and those pitched low being called hiā | 'lower.'

- 19. The Mandarin dialect, or Kwan-hwá, acknowledges five of these tones, the whole of the upper series and the first of the lower. In common parlance they are called, I. P'ing, 2. shang, 3. k'ü, 4. ji, and 5. hiá-p'ing.
- 20. The Shàng-p'ing-shing is the 'upper even tone,' and may be illustrated by the sound of calling to a person at some distance, thus: 'John, fetch my horse,' the syllables in Italics expressing the tone.
- 21. The Shàng-shàng-shīng or 'upper rising tone' agrees nearly with our tone of the final syllable in an interrogation with surprise, 'Will he say that now?' 'Can he come, eh?' The voice is first depressed and then suddenly raised.
- 22. The Shàng-k'ú-shīng or 'upper descending tone' is well illustrated by a phrase of exclamation with scorn or reproach.
- 23. The Shàng-jĩ-shīng or 'upper entering tone' is equivalent to the short abrupt utterance in such a phrase as 'tit for tat,' without pronouncing the final letters. In the Peking dialect this tone is changed into the k'ü-shing.
- 24. The Hiá-p'îng-shīng or 'lower even tone' is similar to the corresponding upper one, but is pitched lower, as in the tone of a direct reply to a Woods question, 'Yes,' 'No,' 'Who fetched it?' 'John.'
- 25. The Hiá-shàng-shīng or 'lower rising tone' is very much like the - Scotch accent, the voice is depressed and quickly raised again. and the remaining three are not recognised in the Mandarin dialect, and will therefore not be explained here. The student is referred for further information on the subject of the tones to the works of Dyer, Medhurst, Bridgman, and Edkins, all of whom have taken great pains to elucidate them.
 - 26. The diacritical marks used by the early Jesuits to distinguish the tones we shall employ in this work. They are as follows: - \ ' - ^ 1. P'îng, 2. shàng, 3. k'ú, 4. ji, 5. hiá-p'îng; placed above the vowel of the syllable to be intonated thus, tā, tà, tá, tă, tâ.
 - 27. The following passages are intended to illustrate the character of The numbers attached to the words, and the diacritical marks also, refer to the tones employed in the pronunciation of them.
 - I. "There I saw Rhadamanthus (5), one of the judges of the dead, scated

at his tribûnal (5). He interrogated each separately. 'Mādām' (1), says he, to the first of them, 'you have been upon the earth above fifty yêars; what have you been doing there all this while?' 'Doing!' (2), says she, 'really I don't know what I've been doing!'" Guardian, No. 158.

II. LEAR. But goes this with thy heart? (2)

CORDELIA. Ay, good my lord.

LEAR. So young, and so untender? Cor. So young, my lord, and true (5).

Lear. Let it be so.—Thy truth then be thy dower;

For, by the sacred rádiance of the sún;
The mysteries of Hécate, and the níght;
By all the operations of the órbs (3),
From whom we do exist and céase to bê;
Hêre I disclaim all my patêrnal câre,
Propînquity and prôperty of blôod,
And as a strânger to my heârt and mê

Hold thee, from this, for êver.

KENT. LEAR. Gōod my liēge— Peâce, Kênt!

Come not betwixt the dragon and his wrath:

I lov'd her most, and thought to set my rest
On her kind nursery.—Hence, and avoid my sight.

SHAKESPEARE, King Lear, Act I. Sc. 2.

28. The Chinese sometimes distinguish the tone of a syllable by a mark placed at the corner of the character, but not generally. As each character is inscribed in a square, the four corners serve as positions for tone-marks in the order shown here: $\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 3 \\ 1 & 4 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$

29. The tone of a character is sometimes changed to show that it has an uncommon meaning or that its relation to the sentence is altered; thus nouns become verbs, and adjectives become nouns, but not by any constant rule: $ch\hat{u}$ if a lord becomes $ch\hat{u}$ for rule; δ or $g\delta$ if bad becomes $w\hat{u}$ or $h\hat{u}$ to hate; $sh\hat{u}ng$ for upper becomes $sh\hat{u}ng$ to go up, ascend; $sh\hat{u}ng$ heavy becomes $sh\hat{u}ng$ to repeat. In such cases a small circle called $sh\hat{u}en$ (1282) is placed at one corner of the character to intimate the change.

30. The Chinese aspirate many of their syllables very strongly, and the absence of the aspiration nearly always renders the phrase unintelligible. For example, $ka\bar{\imath} = 0$ 'ought,' but $k^*a\bar{\imath} = 0$ 'to open.' We shall express the aspiration by the Greek *spiritus asper* ('). When the letter h is used it will be understood to be a very strong aspiration; thus hai 'f 'the sea' is pronounced as if written with the German guttural ch, chai.

- 31. The Chinese are accustomed to arrange the characters in Dictionaries according to the final sounds of the syllables which they represent; thus, sien, lien, mien, kien, &c., come together as they rhyme with each other, and then they follow according to the tones, p'ing, shàng, k'ű, ji. In the Canton dialect there is a Dictionary of this kind, in which the syllables are arranged in thirty-three classes according to their terminations. The first of the series is sien; and the syllables which rhyme with this are taken through the four tones of both upper and lower series. The practice of reading these syllables after a native instructor, in the order of the tones, will be advantageous to the student: thus, siēn, sièn, sièn, sië; and then, as a second exercise, he should select dissyllabic and trisyllabic combinations whose sequences as regards tone are similar.
- 32. The following table will show what we mean by sequence in tone, and the accompanying exercises will serve to accustom the student to practical intonation.

	P'îng	$Sh \delta ng$	K*ű	Jĭ	Hiá-p'îng
P*îng		2	_3,	_4_	5
Shàng	6	7	8	9	10
K'ú	11	12	13	14	15 ′ A
Jĭ	16	17 ~ \	18	19	20 ~ ^
Hiá-p'îng	2I ^ ~	23	23	24 A U	25 ^ ^

From this it appears that twenty-five combinations of tones may be formed, though some occur more frequently than others. We shall now give several combinations intoned according to the numbers in the table:

- ı. $k\bar{\imath}n\text{-}t\text{-}i\bar{\imath}n$ 'to-day ;'ab $k\bar{\imath}ng\text{-}f\bar{\imath}$ 'work ;'cd $si\bar{\imath}ng\text{-}k\bar{\imath}ng$ 'Mr., Sir.'ef
- 2. tō-shaù 'how many ?'gh t'iēn-chù 'God *;'bi gān-tièn 'favour.'jk
- , 3. sāng-ī 'trade, business;'lm chī-taŭ 'to know;'no ī-kiŭ 'as before.'pq
 - 4. $\bar{\imath}$ -fŭ 'clothes;'rs she \bar{u} -shĭ 'to collect together;'tu sāng-jĭ 'birthday.'lv

^{*} The word used by the Romanists.

- 5. shū-fāng 'a library;'ab sz-wān 'polished, refined;'cd kān-ts'ûng 'to follow.'ef
- 6. tà-saū 'to sweep; 'gh tà-t'īng 'to listen; 'gi tièn-hiāng 'to kindle incense.'jk
- 7. laù-tsà 'the old one, father;' lm yìn-tsiù 'to drink wine;' no t'ù-chàn 'land produce.' Pq
- 8. hò-kí 'an assistant;' rs tsaù-fún 'morning rice, breakfast;' tu tàngheú 'to wait for.' v w
- 9. weì-kiŭ 'hardship;'xy tà-fă 'to send;'gz yèn-mŭ 'the eyes.'a'b'
- 10. taù-ch'â 'to pour out tea;'c'd' wàng-nîen 'last year;'e'f' tièn-t'eû 'to nod.'j's'
- 11. waí-piēn 'outside;'h'i' chúng-hwā 'to plant flowers;'j'k' paú-chī 'to inform.''m'
- 12. ché-lì 'here;'n'o' sí-siàng 'to think of carefully;'p'q' sháng-mà 'to mount a horse.'r's'
- 13. fî-yûng 'expenses;'t'u' yû-pî 'to prepare beforehand;'v'w' kaû-sû 'to inform,'x'y'
- 14. lúng-shă 'to kill;'z'a" heú-shǐ 'liberal;'b"c" k'í-lǐ 'strength.'d"e"
- 15. pî-mận 'shut the door;'f" g" hiá-k'î 'to play at ehess;'h''i'' sź-tsîng 'affair.'j"k"
- 16. tŭ-shū 'to study;'l"a fŭ-chī 'to be mad;'zm" chŭ-sāng 'domestic animals.'n"o"
- 17. tsŏ-chù 'to act as master;' p"q" kĭ-kwò 'to bear fruit;' r"s" jĭ-tsż 'a dav.'t"m
- 18. tă-ying 'to answer;'u"v" shwŏ-hwá 'talk;'w"x" tsĕ-pî 'to blame.'y"w'

- 19. tsŏ-jī 'yesterday;'ab tsĭ-k'ĕ 'forthwith;'cd yŭ-fā 'so much the more.'ef
- 20. ch'ŭ-laî 'going in and out; 'gh hiŏ-fâng 'a schoolroom; 'ij yĭ-t'ûng 'together.'kl
- 21. nâng-kān 'power;'mn jû-kīn 'now;'op niên-kāng 'age'qr (of a person).
- 22. win-lì 'elegance of composition;'st jû-tsż 'thus;'ou yaû-sheù 'to wave the hand.'vw
- 23. mîng-tsź 'name and title ;'xy yûng-maú 'countenance ;'za' k'î-kwaí 'marvellous.'b'c'
- 24. nân-shwŏ 'difficult to say;'d'e' fâng-ŭ 'a house;'j'' mîng-jï 'tomorrow.'g'b
- 25. $hw\ddot{u}\hat{\imath}$ -laî 'to return ;'h'i' ch 'å-hû 'tea-pot ;'j'k' $n\hat{u}$ -ts'aî 'a slave.'l'm'
- 33. The following may serve as an exercise for reading the different tones with the same syllable aspirated as well as unaspirated:

Chāng n' 'chapter;' ch'āng o' 'long;' chàng p' 'palm of the hand;' cháng q' 'a curtain;' châng r' 'constant;' ch'âng s' 'to reward;' chī t' 'to know;' chì u' 'to point out;' chì v' 'to begin;' chí w' 'to come;' chî x' 'slow;' chūng y' 'middle;' ch'âng z' 'insect;' chúng a" 'to plant;' fān b" 'to divide;' fàn c" 'flour;' fân d" 'all;' fàn e" 'to reverse;' fī (" 'not;' fī g" 'to spend;' fî h" 'fat;' hò i" 'fire;' hô i" 'what ?' hiūng k" 'an elder brother;' hiūng l" 'a bear;' hwā m" 'a flower;' hwā n" 'to change;' hwā o" 'flowery;' kī v" 'a foundation;' kì q" 'self;' kī r" 'to remember, record;' k'î s" 'he, that;' k'ī t" 'to insult;' k'ī u" 'to begin.'

a r	作 b	H °	₽ d	刻	°越	f 残	g H
F	11=	口	•	<i>7</i> ,0	此	绥	iΤi
^h 來	ⁱ 學	i房	k	一同	"能	ⁿ 幹	°如
P.介	°年	r康	支	^t 理	"此	Y摇	w手
×名	学士	容容	a' 羽兒	b'奇	学科圣	d' 其能	e'言及
^{f'} 屋	g'明	h'	"來	j +++	k' 壼	r女又	^{m'} 才
n' 章	"長	p' 掌	q'帳	r'出	*僧	细知	uh指
v'始	w [′] 至	x'遲	y' 🖶	z' I	^{a"} 種	b"分	°″*济
d"凡	e"反	"非	g" 費	h" 月巴	i"火	^{j"} 何	k" 兄
『能	m"	n"1七	0" 十十	^{p"} 基	^{q"} 己	"記	^{8"} 其.
^{t"} 其大	" ^把 起						

These will afford practice for the student in the regular sequences of p^*ing , shang, $k^*\acute{u}$, and some others:

tś iēn-lì-kíng 千里鏡 'thousand-mile-mirror—a telescope.'

chaū-sheù kiaú jîn 招手叫人 'beckon with hand—call man.'

gāṇ-tièn tsüí tá 恩典.最大 his 'favour very great.'

t'ān-tsiù kwó tō 貪酒過多 'desire wine passover much—he is
too fond of wine.'

It remains for the student to collect phrases with the same consecutive tones, and to practise reading them aloud. Such short sentences may be found already marked with the proper tones in the body of this work.

§. 3. Words and their composition generally.

- 34. Up to this point we have considered only the sounds and syllables of the Chinese, independent of any meaning that might be attached to them. We next turn to words as the expression of ideas. By a word is here meant one or more syllables, which, on being pronounced, convey but one signification; e.g. jin \(\text{\text{'i\vec{e}-tsi\vec{a}ng}}\) \(\frac{\vec{t}}{\vec{b}}\) \(\frac{\vec{t}}{\vec{c}}\) 'a blacksmith.'
- 35. A word in Chinese may consist of one syllable, but from the want of grammatical inflexions, and from the limited number of syllables in use, a monosyllable is rarely intelligible when alone; it generally requires some adjunct to limit or strengthen its meaning. To illustrate this; the thing significe 'earth;' to iff 'ruler;' to iff 'younger brother:' the syllables and tones of all these being alike, there is nothing to distinguish them when uttered, and it is only by some syllable or syllables being attached to them, that any notion is to be acquired from them. Thus in the phrase t'ien-ti T | 'heaven and earth,' the meaning of the syllable ti becomes known by its juxta-position with the syllable t'ien. In ti-fang | Fi 'a place,' the syllable ti 'earth' is limited by fang 'a square,' making the compound to signify 'locality, region' merely. Again, ti 'ruler,' as a general term, is limited in the spoken language to 'emperor' by prefixing hwang in 'emperor,' and is made to signify 'God' by prefixing shang | 'upper.' Then again, ti 'younger brother' is made intelligible at once to a Chinese by the addition of hiūng hi 'elder brother;' hiūng-ti meaning 'brothren.'
- 36. When two or more syllables come together in the above way to form one word or phrase, though each syllable may have a distinct meaning of its own, the compound becomes in many cases a perfect word with a new meaning, varying according to the nature of the relation existing between the syllables of which it is composed. These syllables either represent (a) syno-

centre', mu-wì 末尾. 'end-tail—the end,' where each is as much a dissyllable as workhouse, washstand, &c., in English; or they form (β) a phrase, as in t'ientí 'heaven and earth,' k'ùng máng H. F. 'Confucius and Mencius,' which amounts to enumeration of objects; or (y) words of opposite meaning are united to form the general or abstract term implied by each, e.g. hiūng-tí 'elder brother, younger brother—brethren *,' tō-shaù 🎉 🥠 'many, few quantity, or how many?' or (8) one of the syllables stands as an attribute of the other, e. g. shíng-jîn 聖人 'holy-man—a sage, a philosopher,' tá-hwâng 大黄 'great-yellow-rhubarb,' k'ű-niên 去年 'gone year-last year;' or (e) the two are in apposition, e.g. shǐ-tsź T 🛨 'shǐ, the character—the character shǐ' (stone), jîn-kiā人 蒙'man-family—a person,' kǐ-jîn 溢人 'guest-man-a guest.' Similar unities may be formed by joining verbs which are synonymous or antithetical in meaning; and innumerable phrases of two and three syllables are constituted, by conventional usage, perfect words, their elements being inseparable. This subject will be found further explained in the section on the formation of nouns and verbs. The following English words and phrases will lead the student to anticipate what he may find in Chinese compounds: (a) wire-worker, silver-smith, tin-man, plum-tree, craw-fish, load-stone, the three kingdoms (for the whole country), churchwarden, feather-bed, sea-port, fox-hound; (b) to injure a man, to kill a man, to obey an order.

37. From the above, however, it must not be inferred that Chincse words, thus formed, always remain in their original form when brought into construction in the sentence. The rhythm often causes the exclusion of one syllable from a word when the sense is unaffected by its absence. Thus $m u^a t s \bar{v} n^b$ is 'mother-relation—mother;' $d r^c t s z^d$ is 'son-child—son;' 'to die' is $s z^e$, and $s z^e - lia u^f$ means 'die-finish—died:' but in the expression 'The mother and son died together,' $t s \bar{v} n$ and d r and d r would be omitted for the reasons just given, and the expression would be $m u^a t s z^d lid n g s - k d n g lia u f lia u$

38. The same principle of rhythm, which leads to the elision of one of two syllables in a word, under certain circumstances, also leads to the addition of a meaningless particle when the sound of the whole would be improved thereby. This fact is shown most clearly in the local dialects, each of which has euphonic particles peculiar to it.

^{*} Cf. the phrase 'The long and the short—all.'

a 母 b親 c兒 d子 e死 f了 s兩
h個 i一 j同

39. Although Chinese words are not built up from roots by the addition of terminations, nor modified by changes of the vowels in them, there are certain syllables which take the place of terminations, and these give nominal and verbal forms to the words they thus affect. We have called such syllables formatives. Among them are, qr^a 'child,' $ts\dot{z}^b$ 'son,' $t^ca\dot{z}^c$ 'head:' thus, $t^cs\dot{z}^d-qr^a$ 'sparrow-child—a sparrow, or any small bird;' $si\bar{a}ng^c-ts\dot{z}^b$ 'box-son—a chest;' $j\dot{z}^t-t^ca\dot{z}^c$ 'sun-head—the sun.' The subject will be found further explained in the next chapter.

§. 4. The characters, and how to write them.

- 40. We now come to the consideration of the symbols employed to express the sounds and syllables of this language. They are not merely arbitrary figures, but ideographic characters; they express notions rather than sounds. They are very ancient, and are unique in every point of view.
- 42. Another account is, that Hwang-ti f, the 3rd Emperor from Fu-hi, ordered Ts ang-hie f, a man of extensive genius, and president of the Board of Historians, to work at the composition of the characters, and to follow the six rules of Fu-hi. One day, while walking by the river-side, he perceived some traces of birds' claws on the sand, and sat down to ponder on the Emperor's command. Some of the marks he copied on slips of bamboo with a pencil dipped in varnish. On his return home he multiplied the forms, always keeping in view the foot-prints of the birds, and thus produced five hundred and forty characters, which were called niau-tsz-wan

^{*} A colony of Jews settled in this city in later times.

⁺ Süi-jin is said, by the Chinese, to have first discovered the use of fire.

[&]quot;見 子 。頭 雀 。箱 日

43. But the father of letters in China was Paù-shi (5) is 'a scholar in the reign of Ching-wang if of the $Che\bar{u}$ dynasty, circ. B. C. 1100. In his work it is stated that the greater part of the characters were originally hieroglyphic; but that for the sake of appearance and convenience they were gradually changed. See Morrison's Dictionary, vol. I. Introduction; Marshman's Clavis Sinica, pp. 15, 16; and Kang-kien in the translation of this work by Père Mailla—Histoire Générale de la Chine, tom. I. pp. 19, 20.

44. The $L\check{u}$ -sh \bar{u} , mentioned above (41), deserve some notice. The names of them, with explanations, are here given in a tabular form.

608
107
740
372
598
21,810

45. The following are illustrations of the above-mentioned six classes of characters. The modern forms are given as well as the ancient, that the student may be learning a few characters in every day use, while he sees the change which has taken place in the ancient hieroglyphic.

CLASS I. HIEROGLYPHIC.

Ancient. O D Meaning. 'sun' 'moon' 'mountain' 'eye' 'child' 'horse' 'fish' 'tree' 'teeth'

Modern. 日 月 山 目 子 馬 魚 木 Ö
Sound. jî yữ shān mữ tsż mà yứ mữ chi

Ttīng represents 'a nail;' $\Rightarrow k\bar{u}ng$ 'a bow;' $\Rightarrow tsing$ 'a well;' \leqslant and $\leqslant ch'\bar{u}en$ 'a stream;' $\Rightarrow k'e\dot{u}$ 'a mouth;' $\leqslant h\dot{o}$ 'fire;' and $\leqslant shwu\dot{v}$ 'water.'

46. The second class includes those which indicate the meaning by their very form or composition.

CLASS II. SIGNIFICATIVE.

Ancient. Meaning.	O 'dawn'	'evening'	'above'	'below'	\(\text{unite} \)	'middle'
Modern.	E.	Ø 2	上	下	人3	,
Sound.	tán	<i>8</i> ĭ	$sh\`ang$	$hi\hat{a}$	ts i	$ch \check{u} n g$

** the common character for this is ch'ŭ \(\frac{1}{2} \) 'to go out;' \(\frac{1}{2} \) pàn 'a root—beginning;' \(\frac{1}{2} \) y\(\tilde{u} \), something in the mouth, 'to say.'

47. The next class includes those which are formed by the union of two figures belonging to class I; and which together give rise to an idea, sometimes of an abstraction, sometimes the name of a real thing.

CLASS III. IDEOGRAPHIC.

Ancient.	9	燥	**	ዳ	坐	M
Meaning.	'brightness'	'obstruction'	'forest'	'to see'	'to sit'	'to follow'
Modern.	明4	閑 5	林	見6	坐"	從。
Sound.	$m \hat{\imath} n g$	$hi\hat{e}n$	$l \hat{\imath} n$	$ki\acute{e}n$	$ts\acute{o}$	$ts\hat{u}ng$

异pá (two hands) 'to salute'—the Chinese clasp their hands together in salutations—also 'to visit;' 南 siǔ (heart and blood) 'pity;' 夜 yè (roof, man, dark) 'night.'

48. The following are specimens of the fourth class; they show by the inversion of the figures the antithetic significations which are attached to them. These inversions are, however, not so apparent in the modern characters as in the ancient hieroglyphic; and whenever the original elements of a compound are sought for, the ancient forms must be consulted *.

^{1.} The sun above the horizon.

^{2.} The moon beginning to appear.

^{3.} The common character is A ho 'to unite.'

^{4.} The sun and moon together, suggesting the idea of brightness.

^{5.} A tree in a doorway, - obstruction.

^{6.} A man with a large eye, -seeing.

^{7.} Two men on the ground,—sitting.

^{8.} Two men following,—following.

^{*} An idea of the number of ancient forms for the same character may be obtained by reference to M. Callery's "Systema Phoneticum." Introduction, pp. 31—34. He there gives from twenty to forty different forms in the ancient character.

CLASS IV. ANTITHETIC.

Ancient.	E	3	88	<u>88</u>	頁	F
Meaning.	'right-hand'	'left-hand'	'to cut off'	'to continue'	'body'	body turned
Modern.	右·	左"	经产2	4 隆 3	身	月
Sound.	yiú	$ts\delta$	$tw\acute{a}n$	ki	$sh\bar{\imath}n$	$y \bar{\imath} n$

49. The fifth class is more numerous than the preceding, as well as more important. All particles and proper names are included under this class. The usages with respect to these and the figurative meanings of words will be explained in the syntax and in the dictionary.

CLASS V. METAPHORICAL.

Ancient. Meaning.	(mind)	'character'	'to imprison'	'peace'	'the world'	'ancient'
Modern. Sound.	$\lim_{s\bar{\imath}n}$	士 5 tsź	∏ 6 ts`iû	姜 ⁷ gān	shî	上 9 kù

So $\exists \underline{l}' t' dng$ 'a hall' is used for 'mother;' $\exists \underline{l}' sh\bar{\iota}'$ 'a house,' for 'wife;' $\exists \underline{l}' sh\bar{\iota}ng$ 'the sun ascending,' for 'tranquillity;' $\underline{\underline{l}}\underline{l}$. $h\bar{\iota}ng$ 'to raise,' for 'to flourish.'

CLASS VI. PHONETIC.

50. The sixth class, under which the great mass of characters are found, has been called *Phonetic;* because, in the characters classed under it, one part gives its own sound to the whole figure, and thus acts as a symbol of sound merely. This part does sometimes convey also its symbolic meaning as well as its sound. The number of really useful phonetic characters amounts to about one thousand and forty. These, when united to the two hundred

r. The \(\subseteq \) and \(\subseteq \) were not represented in the ancient form, but the figures for hand were reversed.

^{2.} The modern character for this idea is twán, with an axe by the side of the silk threads divided.

^{3.} The modern character ki has silk added to strengthen the meaning.

^{4.} Sin is the common word for heart in nearly all the senses in which this word is used in English;—mind, disposition.

^{5.} This is a child under a roof, it means properly, to produce, but commonly, a character.

^{6.} A man in an enclosure, -in prison, to imprison.

^{7.} A woman under a roof,—sitting quiet at home, peace, tranquillity.

^{8.} Three figures for ten,—thirty years, a generation, this generation, the world.

^{9.} Ten and mouth, -through ten generations, ancient.

and fourteen elementary figures (the Radicals), produce from fifteen to twenty thousand derivatives (cf. 12 and 53).

記², 起³, 忌⁴, 紀⁵, are all called kì, after 已¹ the common part. 言方, 放⁸, 古⁹, 房¹⁰, are all called fāng, after 方⁶ the common part. 固¹², 苦¹³, 枯¹⁴, 姑¹⁵, are all called kù, after 古¹¹ the common part.

51. The Chinese division of the characters into classes has now been given and illustrated. The figures in the margin of the table (44) show the number of characters under each class. It will be seen that the ordinary process of forming new symbols is the sixth;—by adding to a character a figure, to convey a sound merely, a new symbol is formed, which has a name corresponding to its phonetic element. Thus the figure Ting being added to the character kin 'metal,' a new symbol, I ting 'a nail' is produced; so, also, being added to hie 'a head' the symbol if ting 'a peak,' or 'top of any thing,' is formed. By this ingenious plan any number of new characters might be created; one part of which would designate the generic notion of the new name, and the other would indicate the sound by which to call it. As an illustration of this: -A newly discovered insect or fish might be called ling by certain rude tribes who had never expressed the sound in writing, some character having this sound ling would be taken by a Chinese scholar and united to the generic word châng 'insect,' or yù 'fish,' as the case might be, and the new character, thus formed, would ever after be used as the proper name for that particular insect or fish *.

52. The hieroglyphic element in the Chinese characters is not of frequent occurrence, that is to say, we find but a very limited number of characters whose meaning can be gathered from their formation out of simple significant rudiments; and though the hieroglyphic element may have prevailed in many characters under their primitive forms, it is now seldom to be traced through the changes which the characters have undergone. An enquiry into this branch of the Chinese would be very interesting, and would perhaps throw some light upon the acceptations of words at the present day, but as it is not of a directly practical nature it would be out of place here. The following is an example; the character kiā 'a family' is composed of mien 'a roof' placed above, and kiā 'a pig' beneath; and these con-

¹ kì 'self,' 2 with words = to remember, 3 with walk = to rise up, 4 with heart = to fear, 5 with silk = to record; 6 făng 'a square,' 7 with words = to enquire, 8 with a blow = to set free, 9 with earth = a dwelling, or a street, 10 with dwelling = a room; 11 kù 'ancient' (cf. 49, note 9), 12 in an enclosure = firm, constant, 13 with grass = bitter herbs, meton. for trouble, hardship, 14 with wood = a rotten tree, withered, 15 with woon = a matron, a lady.

^{*} The phonetic system of arrangement for lexicographical purposes has been adopted by M. Callery in his work entitled "Systema Phoneticum Scripturæ Sinicæ." 8vo. Macao, 1841.

stituent parts would lead to the erroneous impression that pigs under a roof was the original notion to be conveyed; but a Chinese authority, noticed by Dr. Schott, makes the figure below to consist of the character $j\hat{\imath}n$ \bigwedge 'man' placed in three different positions, and this would at once suggest the idea of a family \dagger .

- 53. The elementary figures or characters are technically termed radicals and primitives. The radicals, which were formerly about five hundred in number, are now reduced to two hundred and fourteen; the primitives amount to about one thousand seven hundred in common use. These, with the radicals and the characters compounded with both classes, include nearly all the characters existing in Chinese.
- 54. The radicals have been sometimes denominated keys; but the term radicals is very suitable when we consider their meaning and use. They include the names of simple objects, natural and artificial, and serve as generic heads for classes of characters; and, in the absence of an alphabet, they are employed as an index to the whole language, just as an alphabet is used in European tongues.
- 55. The Chinese term for the radicals is $ts\hat{z}-p\hat{u}$ $\stackrel{1}{\leftarrow}$ character-class or classifier.' They are arranged according to the number of strokes required to form them. We have given them below under this arrangement, and recommend the student to use his best efforts to acquire them so as to write them correctly.

TABLE OF THE RADICALS.

Note.—Of the two numbers given after each radical, the former represents the number of characters extant under that radical, and the latter the number of those in common use. The words in brackets show the position of the radical in its derivatives. (Com.) means that the radical is in use as a common word. The asterisk marks those radicals which are frequently found in compounds.

Formed with one stroke.

- 1. yi * 'one, the same' (various). 44. 16.
- kwān 'perpendicular' (through). 22. 2.
 This radical is used as a sign of the repetition of a character.
- 3. \chù 'a point,' also called tiền \Li when used as a stop or dot. 11.2.
- 4. J př 'a curve, a sweep to the left' (various). 24. 8.
- 5. Z yĭ 'a crooked line, one;' a horary character. 42. 8.
- 6. J kŭ 'a hooked stroke' (various). 20. 3.

[†] See Dr. Schott's "Chinesische Sprachlehre." 4to. Berlin, 1857, p. 22.

Formed with two strokes.

- 7. __ @r 'two' (com.) (encloses, above, below). 31. 9.
- 8. Ltea, no signification is given of this radical. (above). 39. 10.
- 9. $\int j n *$ 'a man' (com.) (above). Its contr. form \int on the left always. 800. 141.
- 10. \ jîn 'a man walking' (obs.) (below). 52. 14.
- 11. $\not i$ 'to enter' (com.) (above). 29. 5.
- 12. / pă 'eight' (com.) (below). 45. 12.
- 13. $\prod ki\bar{u}ng$ 'a desert, an empty space' (obs.) (encloses). 51. 5.
- 14. mǐ 'to cover' (obs.) (above). 31. 2.
- 15. > pīng * 'an icicle' (obs.) (left). 51. 16.
- 16. L kì 'a table, a bench' (encloses, right, below). 40. 4.
- 17. $\coprod k\bar{a}n$ 'a receptacle' (obs.) (encloses). 24. 3.
- 18. $\iint ta\bar{u}^*$ 'a knife; a sword' (com.) (below, or right in this form \iint). 378.33. The hook should be written first.
- 19. \mathcal{J} li* 'strength' (com.) (below or right). 163. 19.

 The hook should be written first.
- 20. \nearrow paū 'to wrap up, to envelop' (obs.) (encloses). 66. 4. The dash should be written first.
- 21. _ pì 'a spoon' (right). 20. 2.
- 22. $\int f \tilde{a} n g$ 'a chest' (obs.) (encloses). 65. 4.
- 23. __ hī 'to hide' (obs.) (encloses). 18. 3.
- 24. shǐ 'ten' (com.) (various—below). 56.11.
- 25. pu 'to divine' (above, right). 46. 4.
- 26. \prod tsi 'a seal' (obs.) (right, or below in this form $\boxed{\ }$). 39. 7.
- 27. hān 'a shelter' (obs.) (hangs over). 128. 8. This is often interchanged with radical 53.
- 28. \angle me \bar{u} 'crooked, perverse' (obs.) (above). 41. 2.
- 29. 💢 yiú 'the hand; again' (com.) (right, below). 92.12.

Formed with three strokes.

- 30. $k^e u^*$ 'a mouth' (com.) (left, below). 1047.128.
- 32. $\pm t^* \hat{u}^*$ 'earth, soil' (com.) (left, under). 579. 56. Sometimes radicals 170 and 150 are used instead of this.
- 33. sź 'a scholar; a statesman' (com.) (above, right). 25. 4.
- 34. $\not \nearrow ch\bar{\imath}$ 'to follow' (obs.) (above). 12. 1.
- 35. $\ll shu\bar{\imath}$ 'to walk slowly' (obs.) (below). 24. 2.
- 36. / sǐ 'evening; darkness' (com.) (various). 36. 6.
- 37. tá* 'great' (com.) (above or below). 133. 23.
- 38. f $n\dot{u}$ * 'a woman' (com.) (left or below). 690. 61.
- 40. in mien * 'a roof' (obs.) (above). 249. 52.
- 41. I tsán 'the tenth of a chi r or Chinese foot' (com.) (right or below). 41.11.
- 42. In siaù 'small' (com.) (above, combined). 32. 4.
- 43. 尤龙龙 wâng or yiû 'crooked-leg' (obs.); yiu 'still more' (com.) (left). 67. 2.
- 44. \(\mathbb{H} \) sh\(\bar{\text{i}} \) * 'a corpse' (above). 149. 20.
- 45. J ch'ë 'a sprout' (obs.) (above). 39. 1.
- 46. L shān 'a mountain' (com.) (left, above). 637.17.
- 47. 🎇 or 川 ch'uēn 'a stream' (com.) (combined). 27. 4.
- 48. $\sum k\bar{u}ng$ 'work' (com.) (various). 18. 5.
- 49. $\bigcup ki$ 'self' (com.) (below). 21.5. Distinguish this from $\bigcup \bar{\imath}$ and $\bigcup sz$.
- 50. 1 kīn * 'a napkin' (com.) (left, below). 295.19.
- 51. $+ k\bar{a}n$ 'a shield' (com.) (combined). 18.6.
- 52. Y yaū 'young' (left, doubled). 21. 4. E. G. Z kì 'several.'
- 53. yen * 'a covering' (obs.) (covers). 287. 29.

- 54. $\frac{4}{2}$ ying 'a long journey' (obs.) (left). 10. 5. Used for radical 162.
- 55. # kūng 'folded hands' (below). 51. 2.
- 56. yĭ 'a dart' (right). 16. 2.
- 57. $\rightarrow k\bar{u}ng * 'a bow' (com.) (left, below). 166. 15.$
- 58. \implies ki, \implies or n, 'a pig's head' (obs.) (above). 26. 2.
- 59. / shan 'long hair' (right). 53. 7.
- 60. \$\frac{1}{2} \chi * 'to walk' (obs.) (left). 227. 26.

Formed with four strokes.

- 61. sīn*, contr. , 'the heart' (com.). (The contr. form on the left; the full form, below or elsewhere). 1077.142.
- 62. $\sqrt[4]{k\bar{o}}$ * 'a spear' (com.) (right). 111.15.
- 63. A hú 'a one-leaved door; a family' (com.) (above). 45.5.
- 64. # sheù*, contr. #, 'the hand' (com.). (The contr. form on the left; the full form, below). 1092. 46.
- 65. Franch' (com.) (right). 27. 2.
- 66. \not pŭ *, contr. \not , 'to touch' (right). 296. 21.
- 67. χ wan, contr. χ , 'to paint letters' (com.). Contr. form seldom used. (below). 23. 2.
- 68. = teù 'a dry measure, the North Star' (com.) (right). 33. 5.
- 69. $f = k \bar{\imath} n$ 'an ax; a Chinese pound' (com.) (right). 56.8.
- 70. In fang 'a square, a place' (com.) (left). 83. 9.
- 71. 1. wû, in comp. 1. 'wanting, not.' 13. 2.
- 72. | ji * 'the sun; a day' (com.) (left, and elsewhere). 455. 51.
- 73. $y\ddot{u}$ * 'to speak' (com.) (below, and elsewhere). 38. 13.
- 74. 月 yǔ* 'the moon; a month' (com.) (left). 70.11.
- 75. mű* 'wood' (com.) (left, below). 1358. 17.
- 76. K'ién * 'to owe, to want' (right). 236. 18.
- 77. It chì 'to stop at a point' (com.) (various). 91. 9.

- 78. 1 taì * 'a rotten bone; bad, putrid' (com.) (left). 232.12.
- 79. Ju shu 'to kill' (right). 84. 8.
- 80. ##: w\(u^2\) 'not, without' (com.) (below). 17. 5.
- 81. pì 'to compare' (com.) (various). 22. 1.
- 82. A maù 'hair (not human), fur, feathers' (com.) (left.) 212. 4.
- 83. K shí 'a family' (com.). 15. 3. K mîn 'the people' is under shí.
- 84. 气 k'î 'vapour' (obs.) (right, above). 18.1. The character in use is 氣.
- 85. \sqrt{k} shwui*, contr. $\sqrt[k]{}$, 'water' (com.) (contr., on the left; full form, below).
- 86. 1 ho*, contr. 111, 'fire' (com.) (contr., below; full form, left). 639.43.
- 87. M. chaù, contr. , 'claws' (com.) (above). 37.7. See radical 97.
- 88. Ý fú 'a father' (com.) (above). 11. 2.
- 89. 💆 hiâu 'to imitate' (left). 17. 3.
- 90. 🚽 chwâng 'a couch' (obs.) (left). 50. 2.
- 91. H. pién 'a splinter' (left). 78. 4.
- 92. \mathcal{F} yd 'molar teeth' (com.) (left). 9. 2. Cf. radical 211.
- 93. # niû*, contr. #, 'an ox' (com.) (contr., on the left; full form, below).
 232.12.
- 94. J. k'iuèn, contr. J, 'a dog' (com.) (contr., on the left). 445.28. Interchanged with radical 153.

Formed with five strokes.

- 95. 文 hiûen 'colour of the sky; dark' (com.) (combined). 7.2. E.G. 季.
- 96. Tyŭ * 'a jewel' (com.) (left). 473. 25.
- 97. M kwā 'fruit of the melon kind' (com.) (right or left). 56. 2.
- 98. Twa 'tiles, bricks' (com.) (right, below). 173. 2. Interchanged with radicals 32, 108, and 112.
- 99. H' kān 'sweet' (com.). 23. 2.
- 100. Esāng 'to be born, to live' (com.). 23. 2.

- 101. 用 yúng 'to use' (com.) (combined). 11. 2. E. G. 南方 fù 'great.'
- 102. H t'iên * 'a field' (com.) (left, below). 193. 26.
- 103. FE p'i 'a piece of cloth; a foot' (com.) (below). 16. 5.
- 104. The common character is if ping.
- 105. У рй 'to stride' (above). 16. 3.
- 107. Fi 'skin; bark' (com.) (right, left, below). 95. 1.
- 108. | ming * 'dishes' (com.) (below). 129. 16.
- 109. mu * 'the eye' (com.) (left, or contr. form III above). 646. 29.
- 110. 🛪 meû 'a barbed spear' (left). 66. 3.
- 111. 矢 shì 'an arrow' (left). 65.8.
- 112. shǐ* 'a stone, a rock' (com.) (left, below). 489. 23.
- 113. The contr. f, 'an omen from heaven' (com.) (left, below).
 214. 25. The contr. form is similar to the contr. form of 145.
- 114. [] jeù 'the print of an animal's foot; a trace' (below). 13. 2.
- 116. / hiŭ 'a cave, a hole' (com.) (above). 300. 18.
- 117. Ti 'to stand, to establish' (com.) (left). 102. 7.

Formed with six strokes.

- 118. / chŭ*, contr. Д., 'bamboo' (com.) (above). 954. 45.
- 119. * 'rice (uncooked)' (com.) (left). 321.16.
- 120. 茶 mǐ*, also written 系 and 采, 'silk, (threads)' (com.) (left, below).
 821.71. This radical has also been called sz; prob. for sz 森系.
- 121. III feù 'an earthenware vase' (left). 78. 2.
- wàng, contr. | III, till, and | III, 'a net' (above). 164. 15. E.G.
- 123. ‡ yâng 'a sheep' (com.) (left, above). 157. 9.
- 124. $y\hat{u}$ 'wings' (com.) (various:—above, below, right). 210. 9.

- 125. 老 lai 'old' (com.) (above); contr. into 耂 in 孝 and 者 2. 23.5.
- 127. $# l \hat{u} i$ 'a plough handle' (left). 85. 3.
- 128. A ? * 'the ear' (com.) (left, below). 172. 16.
- 129. ‡ yŭ 'a pencil' (left and below). 20. 2.
- 130. $j\check{u}$ *, contr. \iint , 'flesh' (com.) (left, below). The contr. form is printed like $y\check{u}$ 'the moon.' 675. 56.
- 131. $\stackrel{\square}{\coprod}$ chīn 'a subject; a statesman' (com.) (left). 17. 4.
- 132. É tsź 'self; from' (com.) (various). Sometimes used for É pě 'white.' 35. 2.
- 133. \rightleftharpoons chi 'to come to' (com.) (below, and elsewhere). 25. 3.
- 134. E k'iù 'a mortar' (various). 72.7.
- 135. ## shi 'the tongue' (com.) (left). 35. 6.
- 136. 夕中 ch'uèn 'to turn the back on; to oppose' (obs.). 11. 3.
- 137. ff. cheū 'a boat' (com.) (left). 198. 3.
- 138. Rán 'disobedient; limits' (right). 6. 2.
- 139. A sĭ 'colour; appearance' (com.) (right). 22. 2.
- 140. "" tsaù *, contr. ++, 'grass; plants' (com.) (above, in the contr. form). 1902. 95.
- 141. Hà 'a tiger' (obs.) (above). 115. 9.
- 142. \coprod chûng * 'an insect; a reptile' (com.) (left, below). 1067. 22.
- 143. iii hiŭ 'blood' (com.) (left). 61.3.
- 144. Thing 'to walk'; to do' (com.) (encloses). 54. 8.
- 145. \overline{k} , contr. \overline{k} , 'clothing; covering' (com.) (contr. form on the left; full form below; sometimes half above and half below). 611.36.
- 146. $\iiint y\bar{a}$, also written \iint_0^3 , 'to cover over' (obs.) (above). 30. 3.

¹ k'aŭ 'aged,' com. 'to examine.' 2 chè 'this, he who, &c.' 3 si 'the west.'

Formed with seven strokes.

- 147. Kiến * 'to see' (com.) (right, below). 162.14.
 - 148. $\not\exists j$ $ki\delta$ 'a horn; a corner' (com.) (left, below). 159. 5.
- 149. $\overrightarrow{\Box}$ $y \hat{e} n *$ 'words; to speak' (com.) (left, below). 861. 105.
- 150. 🏠 kŭ 'a valley' (left). 55. 2.
- 151. H teù 'a wooden sacrificial vessel; beans' (below, left). 69. 5.
- 152. *shì* 'a pig' (left or below). 50. 3.
- 153. F chì 'reptiles' (left). 141. 5.
- 154. péi * 'a pearl shell' (com.) (left, below). 278. 46.
- 155. # chi 'flesh colour' (com.) (left). 32. 2.
- 156. # tseù * 'to walk, to run' (com.) (left). 236. 11.
- 157. Etsŭ*, contr. H, 'the foot, enough' (com.) (left, below). 581. 30.
- 158. 🔰 shīn 'the body; trunk' (com.) (left). 98. 4.
- 159. \vec{l} $k\ddot{u}$ * 'a carriage' (com.) (left). 362. 22. Sometimes called $ch\bar{e}$.
- 160. $\frac{1}{2}$ sīn 'bitter,' H. C. (com.) (doubled, right). 37. 7.
- 161. R shîn 'time; an hour,' H. C. (com.) (various). 16.3. Cf. radical 168.
- 162. chŏ*, contr. , 'motion' (obs.) (left). 382. 59.
- 163. y_i^* , contr. β , 'a city' (com.) (right c. contr. form). 351. 27. Cf. radical 170.
- 164. If yiù * 'new wine,' H. C. (com.) (left). 291. 20.
- 165. Fién 'to distinguish' (left). 14. 2.
- 166. \coprod \hbar 'a Chinese mile; a village' (com.) (below). 14. 5.

Formed with eight strokes.

- 167. \bigwedge $k\bar{\imath}n*$ 'gold; metal' (com.) (left). 803. 46.
- 168. E ch'âng, contr. E, 'long, old' (com.). 56. 2.
- 169. | H mán * 'a door' (com.) (encloses). 249. 27.
- 170. \$\frac{1}{2}\textit{feù}\ *, contr. \$\beta\$, 'an artificial mound of earth' (left c. contr. form).
 347. 38. Cf. radical 163.

- 171. 表 taí 'to reach to' (right). 13.1.
- 172. # chuì * 'short-tailed birds' (right). 234. 17.
- 173. | yù * 'rain' (com.) (contr. form above). 298. 18.
- 174. 🛱 tsîng 'azure, sky-blue' (com.) (left). 18. 3.
- 175. $f\bar{\imath}$ 'not so, false' (com.). 26. 3.

Formed with nine strokes.

- 176. III mién 'the face' (com.) (left). 67. 1.
- 177. ‡ kĕ 'untanned hide, without hair' (left). 307. 5.
- 178. 🛣 weì 'tanned hide' (left). 101. 2.
- 179. **1** kiù 'leeks' (various). 21. 1.
- 180. $\stackrel{\longrightarrow}{\coprod}$ $y\bar{\imath}n$ 'sound, tone' (com.). 43. 3.
- 181. A yě* 'the head' (com.) (right). 373. 30.
- 182. Jung 'wind' (com.) (left). 183. 3.
- 183. #\$ fī 'to fly' (com.). 13. 1.
- 184. shī*, contr. , 'to eat' (com.) (contr. form on the left). 395. 38.
- 185. 🙀 sheù 'the head; the chief' (com.). 20.1.
- 186. 香 hiāng 'fragrance' (com.). 38. 1.

Formed with ten strokes.

- 187. 🏥 mà * 'a horse' (com.) (left, below). 473. 28.
- 188. / kŭ * 'a bone' (com.) (left). 186. 4. Interchanged with radicals 130 and 181.
- 189. kaū 'high' (com.). 35. 1.
- 190. E piaū 'long hair' (above). 245.7.
- 191. teú 'to fight' (obs.) (encloses). 24. 1.
- 192. King 'fragrant plants' (below). 9. 1.
- 193. 買 li 'a tripod with crooked feet' (left, below). 74.7-
- 194. 鬼 kweì 'a departed spirit, a ghost' (com.) (left). 142. 4.

Formed with eleven strokes.

- 195. $\iiint y \hat{u}$ 'a fish' (com.) (left). 572.10. Interchanged with radicals 110 and 205.
- 196. Aniaù 'a bird' (com.) (right). 761.21. Interchanged with radical 180.
- 197. | lù 'salt' (left). 45. 1.
- 198. Jii 'a stag' (com.) (above). 106.9. Interchanged with radical 120.
- 199. 🎉 mě 'wheat' (com.) (left). 132. 1.
- 200. md 'hemp' (com.) (above). 35. 3.

Formed with twelve strokes.

- 201. 黃 hwâng 'yellow, colour of earth' (com.) (lcft). 43. 1.
- 202. 秦 shù 'millet' (com.) (left). 47. 2.
- 203. A hě 'black' (com.) (left, below). 173. 4.
- 204. The chi 'to sew, to embroider' (left). 9. none in common use.

Formed with thirteen strokes.

- 205. I ming 'a frog' (com.) (below). 41. 2. Interchanged with radicals 140, 195, and 212.
- 206. In ting 'a tripod' (com.). 15. 1.
- 207. Hi kù 'a drum' (com.) (above). 47. 1.
- 208. $\sinh i \hat{a}$ rat' (com.) (left). 103. 2. Interchanged with radical 111.

Formed with fourteen strokes.

- 209. pí 'the nose' (com.) (left). 50. 1.
- 210. is 'to adjust, to adorn' (com.) (above). 19. 3.

Formed with fifteen strokes.

211. $\frac{11}{|2|}$ chì 'front teeth' (com.) (left). 163. 3.

Formed with sixteen strokes.

- 212. $\lim_{n \to \infty} l \hat{u} n g$ 'a dragon' (com.). 25. 2.
- 213. 11 kwêi 'a tortoise' (com.). 25. 1. Interchanged with radical 205.

Formed with seventeen strokes.

214. m yŏ 'a flute with three holes' (left). 20. 1.

56. The meanings attached to the above elementary characters have been thus classified; we give them here because they may be useful both to the general reader, to show the kind of words denoted by the elementary figures, and to the student to test his knowledge of the radicals themselves.

Parts of bodies.—Body, corpse, head, hair, down, whiskers, face, eye, ear, nose, mouth, teeth, tusk, tongue, hand, heart, foot, hide, leather, skin, wings, feathers, blood, flesh, talons, horn, bones.

Zoological.—Man, woman, child; horse, sheep, tiger, dog, ox, hog, hog's head, deer; tortoise, dragon, reptile, mouse, toad; bird, fowls; fish; insect.

Botanical.—Herb, grain, ricc, wheat, millet, hemp, leeks, melon, pulse, bamboo, sacrificial herbs; wood, branch, sprout, petal.

Mineral.—Metal, stone, gems, salt, earth.

Meteorological.—Rain, wind, fire, water, icicle, vapour, sound; sun, moon, evening, time.

Utensils.—A chest, a measure, a mortar, spoon, knife, bench, couch, clothes, crockery, tiles, dishes, napkin, net, plough, vase, tripod, boat, carriage, pencil; bow, halberd, arrow, dart, axe, musical reed, drum, seal.

Qualities.—Colour, black, white, yellow, azure, carnation, sombre-colour; high, long, sweet, square, large, small, slender, old, fragrant, acrid, perverse, base, opposed.

Actions.—To enter, to follow, to walk slowly, to arrive at, to stride, to walk, to reach to, to touch, to stop, to fly, to overspread, to envelope, to encircle, to establish, to overshadow, to adjust, to distinguish, to divine, to see, to eat, to speak, to kill, to fight, to oppose, to stop, to embroider, to owe, to compare, to imitate, to bring forth, to use, to promulge.

Parts of the world and dwellings; figures; miscellaneous.—A desert, cave, field, den, mound, hill, valley, rivulet, cliff, retreat. A city, roof, gate, door, portico. One, two, eight, ten, eleven. An inch, a mile. Without, not, false. A scholar, a statesman, letters; art, wealth, motion; self, myself, father; a point; wine; silk; joined hands; a long journey; print of a bear's foot; a surname, a piece of cloth.

- 57. Some radical appears in every symbol, and the Chinese classify the characters under that radical, which is easily distinguishable from the rest of the figure. In some cases, however, the selection appears to have been arbitrary, for occasionally we find characters classified under a radical which is so intermingled with the remaining part of the figure that it is only by practical experience that it can be recognised. The student will find a list, taken from K'ang-hi's Dictionary, of all the characters whose radical is difficult to discover, in Dr. Morrison's Dictionary, part II. vol. II.
- 58. When the radical is found, we proceed to count the number of strokes in the remaining part, often called the *primitive*. The primitive is composed of strokes, from one to twenty and upwards; these strokes are made in one consecutive order, which depends upon the figure itself, and this order can only be learnt by practice. (The rules in Art. 76. may be consulted.) As

An alphabetic arrangement of the Radicals.

	1 chi 60	飛 fī 183	黄 hwâng 201	
m . 4r 126	赤 chǐ 155	父 fú 88	∏ hwüī 3τ	己 kì 49
耳 àr 128	E chīn 131	虱 fūng 182	衣 1 145	≡ ki 58
長 ch'ang 168	🎉 chŏ 162	hān 27	方 jeù 114	气 k i 84
E châng 192	r chù 3	黑 hĕ 203	人 ji 11	太 k'ién 76
M chaù 87	ff. chŭ 118	hī 23	∏ jĭ 72	見 kién 147
車 chē 159	∭ ch'uēn 47	香 hiāng 186	$\bigwedge j$ în 9	kīn 50
屮 ch'ĕ 45	夕丰: ch'uèn 136	🕇 hidu 89)[jîn 10	斤 kīn 69
fil· cheū 137	隹 chuì 172	行 hîng 144	肉 jŭ 130	金 kīn 167
久 chī 34	E chûng 142	沆 hiǚ* 116	$+k\bar{a}n$ 51	角 kiŏ 148
支 chī 65	片 chwâng 90	∭ hiŭ 143	₩ kān 99	E = Kiù 134
1. chì 77	fāng 22	支 hiûen†95	kān 17	韭 kiù 179
至 chí 133	方 fāng 70	火 hò 86	艮 kán 138	犬 k'iuèn 94
哥 chì 153	f feù 121	禾 hô 115	高 kaū 189	kiūng 13
黹 chì 204	阜 feù 170	戶 hú 63	革. kě 177	戈 kō 62
chì 211	非疗175	走 hù 141	∏ k'eù 30	車 kū 159

^{*} Also called yū.

J kŭ 6	<i>™</i> 14	生 sāng 100	系 82 120	∰: wû 80
鼓 kù 207	→ miēn 40	∐ shān 46	大 tá 37	牙 yd 92
谷 kŭ 150	mién 176	I shan 59	1 tai 78	jij yā 146
晋 kŭ 188	ming 108	手 sheù 64	隶 taí 171	羊 yâng 123
$\int k\bar{u}ng \ 48$	木 mŭ 75	首 sheù 185]] taū 18	Z yaū 52
# kūng 55	E mŭ 109	F shī 44	_L teû 8	頁 yĕ 181
	## mung* 205	氏 shí 83	📫 teù 68	yen 53
瓜 kwā 97) nĭ 104	河 shí 113	📆 teù 151	
kwān 2	鳥, niaù 196	豕 shì 152	teú 191	<i>─ yĭ</i> 1
鬼 kwei 194	牛 niû 93	- shĭ 24	H tiên 102	Z yĭ 5
齀 kwêi 213	茨 nǜ 38	石 shǐ 112	鼎 tìng 206	₹ yĭ 56
老 laù 125	₹ pă 12	舌 shǐ 135	tsán 41	邑 yǐ 163
里 166	7 paū 20	食 shǐ 184	ササ tsaù 140	音 yīn 180
力11 19	É pě 106	矢 shì 111	走 tseù 156	Lying 54
南 1 193	貝 péi 154	身 shīn 158	齊 ts î 210	又 yiú 29
<u>I</u> 117	L pì 21	辰 shîn 161	TJ tsĭ 26	尤 yiû 43
南 10 197	JL pì 81	爱shu 79	壽 tsîng 174	兀 yiû 43
鹿 li 198	皮炉107	黍 shù 202	足 tsŭ 157	西 yiù 164
耒 lùi 127	鼻 pí 209	鼠 shù 208	子 tsž 39	龠 yŏ 214
能 lûng 212	J př 4	shuī 35	É tsź 132	羽 yù 124
馬 mà 187	疋 p°i 103	水 shwuì 85	± t'ù 32	丽 yù 173
麻 mâ 200	E/ piaū 190	\$\frac{1}{2}\$ sĭ 36	瓦 wà 98	£ yû 195
	H piến 91	色 sǐ 139	文 wận 67	₩ 73
毛 maù 82	采 pién 165	\$ siaù 42	大 wâng 43	月 yǔ 74
婆 mě 199	y ping 15	∑ sīn 61	E wang 96	聿 yŭ 129
∠ meū 28	рй 25	₹ sīn 160	XX wàng 122	Т уй 96
7. med 110	支 pŭ 66	L 82 28	韋 wei 178	用 yúng 101
米 mì 119	ブミ pŭ 105	± 82 33	无 wû 71	

- 59. Various forms of character have been used at different periods, and some of them are still employed for certain purposes. The sheet facing this page will show six of these forms. Beginning on the right hand and reading downwards we have in the first column— $sh\bar{u}^a$ yiu^b $l\bar{u}^c$ t^ci^d ; $y\bar{u}^e$, $chu\hat{e}n^f$; $y\bar{u}^e$, lig^c ; $y\bar{u}^e$, lig^c ; $y\bar{u}^e$, lig^c ; $y\bar{u}^e$, lig^c ; lig^c ; li
- 60. 1) Of the Chuến- $sh\bar{u}$ fa (col. 1.) there are several varieties, from the stiff straight lines used on seals and stiff spike-like strokes cut on brazen vessels, to the rounded angles as seen here and upon porcelain, cakes of ink, &c.
- 2) The $Li-sh\bar{u}$ ga (col. 2.) was invented by officials under the Tsin dynasty; it is often employed for inscriptions, titles and prefaces to books, and was formerly used for official papers.
- 3) The $Kia\bar{\imath}$ - $sh\bar{u}$ ha (col. 3.) is the model for good writing; works are sometimes printed in this form, but not commonly.
- 4) The \hat{Hing} - \hat{u}^{a} (col. 4.) or running hand is frequently used in prefaces, and for business purposes. Many varieties of it may be seen in Morrison's Dictionary, part II. vol. II.
- 5) The $Tsaù-sh\bar{u}$ is (col. 5.) or grass character is an abbreviated form of the $H\hat{\imath}ng-sh\bar{u}$. These abbreviations are so various, according to the whim of the writer, that sometimes they can scarcely be read even by educated natives. This form is employed in prefaces, manuscripts, and shop-ledgers, &c.
- 6) The $S\bar{u}ng$ - $sh\bar{u}$ ^{ka} (col. 6.) or as it is also called the $S\bar{u}ng$ -pan ^{k1} was first used, under the Sung dynasty, for printing from wooden blocks; an art which was invented about that time (A. D. 900). This form has continued in use for letter-press ever since.
- 61. In addition to these six forms, the Chinese indulge their taste and fancy in ornamental writing. They have, for example, the wheat-ear, the dragon-head, the tadpole, the bamboo-sprout, and other forms of character. The Emperor K'iên-lûng's mn Poem on Shing-kīng, op the city of Moukden, the metropolis of Manchuria, has been printed, both in Chinese and Mandchu, with every variety of fanciful character. A very beautiful copy of this work may be seen in the Library of the British Museum.
- 62. Many characters have undergone a series of changes at different periods, and some are frequently used for others. The various descriptions

"乾 "隆 。盛 "京

a 書 b 有 c 六 d 體 e 目 f 篆 s 隷

h 楷 i 行 j 草 k 宋 l 板 pàn means 'a board, plank or
block.' The common word for a boat of small dimensions is Sān-pàn 'three planks.'

書有六體日緣日隸日楷日行日草日宋 書有六幹 出写的野田智田福田松田川田谷田書 書有六體日家日隸日楷日行日草日宋 **蕎河穴體口第日線日幣口が日州日** 有八體回第回緣回楊回行回軍回宗 口第日 祭日楷日

大日本のかのはのはのなのなのなりから 書有八體日然日隸日排日行日共日於 書司兒體日第月期日 青有六路日第日然日指日了日**四**日 書有人照日然日然日格日公日中日於 獨目於日外日則日

have been classified under the following designations: 1. The Ching-tsz,ab or 'correct character,' without variations; 2. T'ûng-tsz,cb those having 'corresponding forms,' duplicates and triplicates; 3. T'ūng-tsz,db those conveying a corrresponding signification though differing in form; 4. Pùn-tsz cb and Kù-tsz,fb the 'original' and 'ancient forms;' and 5. Sŭ-tsz,gb 'vulgar forms' of characters. Abbreviated forms are called Sáng-tsz,hb and spurious ones Wei-tsz; ib e. g. D for sz H 'to think.'

63. The standard works in Chinese literature are generally printed with the full form $(Ching-ts\dot{z})$ of the characters, but some works contain a few abbreviations $(K\dot{u}-ts\dot{z})$ or $S\dot{u}-ts\dot{z}$; and books in the lower style of composition—such as novels, ballads, &c.—contain numerous contracted forms. The list here given should be learnt by the student, as the forms in it are likely to occur frequently. Many more will be found in the Dictionaries of $K^*\bar{a}ng-h\bar{\iota}$ (in Chinese), of Drs. Morrison and Medhurst (in English), and in that of $P\dot{e}re$ Gonçalves (in Portuguese).

List of abbreviated forms in common use.

(N. B. They are arranged according to the number of strokes in the abbreviations.)

萬	13 上	與	25 边	邊	37 还	還	49	舷	能
錢	14 灵	三頭					50	写	* 2 37 9
亡	15	2633						與	與
1	16 1	、爾						点	盟占
			29过	過	41 画	畫	53	圣	賢
廊			30 两	风	42 段	段	54		譽.
久	19 全	一同						. —	
觔	20 圣	- 聖.	32 所	聽	44 观	罄見			
安	21 3	對對	33 乱	亂	45 类	類	1		
簁	22 号	號	34 囯	國	46 爱	愛	l .		
雙	23 7	些	35 III	口	47 雷	留			
氣	24 K	广燈	36 実	實	48 难	葉能	59	亲	親
	錢亡凡月麼久的多從雙	錢亡凡另麼久動多從雙及好好不公圣对另外	錢亡凡 爿 麼 14 太 太 尔 処 和 15 本 尔 処 和 17 18 個 處 信	錢亡凡爿麼久舶号從雙头太尔処仙仝圣对号礼頭 *53爾處信同聖對號禮頭 數號禮同聖對號禮	錢亡凡爿麼久的受從雙 之。 之。 之。 之。 之。 之。 之。 之。 一。 之。 之。 一。 之。 之。 之。 之。 之。 之。 之。 之。 之。 之	錢亡凡 片壓 久 舫	錢亡凡 片壓 久 舫	錢 C L 片 壓 久 的 多 從 雙 表 公 不 如 不 全 不 如 不 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是 是	變亡凡身麼久的受從雙 50 51 52 53 44 45 55 56 57 58 58 59 41 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 21 22 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21 21

正 字 。同 通 本 古 络 * These numbers refer to the sheet of characters.

- 64. Besides the use of these abbreviations and vulgar forms of characters in the lower class of compositions, when expressing purely local idioms, colloquial or provincial phrases, characters well known, but of an entirely different meaning from that which is to be conveyed, are sometimes employed; and the reader is supposed to understand that the character used, is so used merely on account of its sound, that is both syllable and tone. At other times characters are made by the addition of the radical $\int j \hat{\imath} n$ 'man,'—as in the phrase $\int \vec{k} \cdot \hat{\imath} d\vec{k} \cdot \hat{\imath} d\vec{k$
- 65. It will be desirable here to point out some characters which, though similar in form, or with a very slight variation, differ in sound and meaning. It is 'self;' it 'to stop, finished, now, already;' set' o' o'clock to stop, in shed, now, already;' set' o' o'clock to stop, in shed, now, already;' set' o' o'clock to stop, it is and it are often written and printed interchangeably for each other. If yû 'to give' and I set' son' are confounded by beginners, the former requires four strokes, the latter only three. I kān 'a shield,' I yû 'in, at, with respect to,' and I st'iēn 'a thousand,' are similar. Compare also I wi 'not yet' and I mi 'the end;' liaù 'finished' and yā or chā 'forked;' tá I 'great,' t'ai I 'very great, very,' and I k'iuèn 'a dog;' I t'iēn 'heaven' and I fū 'a man, a person.'
- 66. The Dictionary edited by the Emperor $K^*\bar{a}ng-h\bar{i}$ contains about forty-four thousand characters; but of these, six thousand five hundred are obsolete forms, four thousand two hundred are without name or meaning, and, of the remainder, about twenty thousand are very rarely met with, being either duplicate forms, names of unimportant places and persons, or found only in rare and ancient works. From ten to twelve thousand is understood to be the number employed in Chinese literature, but a much smaller number suffices for ordinary purposes. The manual native Dictionary,—the $F\bar{a}n-y\hat{u}n$ divided rhymes,'—in use in the province of Canton contains seven thousand three hundred and twenty-seven characters. Even this number includes many characters not in common use. Four, five, and six thousand have been mentioned as an approximation to the number of characters in general use. The manual Dictionary appended to this work contains nearly three thousand five hundred, and these will be found sufficient for all ordinary purposes.

§. 5. Arrangement of characters in books, punctuation, &c.

67. The characters are arranged in native works in columns, and are read from the top of the page downwards, always beginning on the right hand side and proceeding column by column towards the left. This arrangement

renders it necessary to begin at, what appears to us to be, the end of the volume, as is the case in the Hebrew, Arabic, and some other languages. Two pages only are printed at a time, and these upon the same side of the paper. The leaf is folded with its blank sides placed together, and on the folded edge, which remains uncut, the general title, the running title, the chapter, section, page, and often the designation of the edition, are printed parallel to the other columns. When the characters are arranged in horizontal lines they are read from right to left.

68. The sizes of books vary from folio and quarto, which are uncommon, to imperial octavo for the classics and history; duodccimo, designated 'sleeve' editions, alluding to their portability, are taken for novels; and various smaller sizes are in use for popular poetry, ballads, and works on arithmetic: but, although these sizes predominate in, they cannot be said to be confined to, the above classes of literature. Various qualities of paper are used; works being sometimes printed on white paper; large paper copies are also found. Poems and other works are occasionally printed in white letters on a black ground. Vermillion coloured characters are a mark of Imperial design or patronage. The yellow title-page with the dragon depicted on the margin indicates the Imperial editions.

69. The divisions of a work are commonly pạn 本 or kiuèn* 会 'volumes,'hwüi* 口 'chapters,' the latter especially in novels; twán 是 'section,' chāng 章 'chapter,' tsiē 質 'section,' used for 'verse,' are also found. In extensive works the characters used in the cycle and for the time of day are employed for divisions of the kiuèn. The first four characters of the Yǐ-kīng 员 愛 are sometimes used for works in four parts (v. Numerals). Works in three volumes or parts are distinguished by the characters 上 shàng 'upper,' 中 chūng 'middle,' 下 hiá 'lower.'

71. It is not usual to punctuate the sentence in any way. The paragraph is marked by a large circle, or the first character of it is placed at the top of the column. When the period is shown, it is by a small circle, in the place of our full-stop; a dot, called chù or tièn \(\frac{11}{2}\), takes the place of our comma

^{*} Kiuen and hwüî both signify 'something rolled up,'-'a scroll.'

or semicolon. The sentence or clause is called $k\acute{u}$ \not ; a smaller division is stopped by a point, called $te\acute{u}*$; equivalent to our comma. Small circles are placed on the right of the characters when the passage is deemed important or worthy of notice, and black dots are used when the passage is less important; the characters so pointed take the place of *italics* in English. The names of books quoted are enclosed by a line. Names of places, when marked at all, have two parallel lines on the right; names of nations are sometimes surrounded by a line; names of persons have one line only on the right. The names of emperors and others deemed worthy of honour are always made to begin a new line, and to project above the tops of the other columns, to the extent of one, two, or three characters.

§. 6. On writing the characters.

72. The Chinese write the characters with great care, and make it their study to give them an elegant form. The importance to the student of writing them correctly is self-evident; the practice of writing them will give accuracy, and will help the memory; while, as an eminent writer on the subject has said, "no man can properly be considered to learn the language who does not devote a portion of his time to this important branch of the subject †."

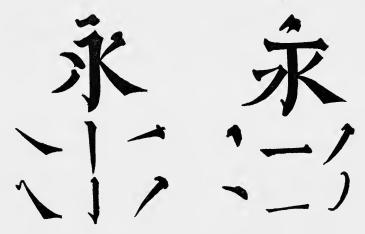
73. The materials for writing were in early times of the rudest kind; but the varnish, the style, and the bamboo slips have given place to the wan-fangsź-paú 文 屠 四 睿 'the four precious implements of the study,' viz. pencil, ink, paper, and ink-stone. The pencil, it pi, is made of the hair of the sable, the fox, the deer, the cat, the wolf, or the rabbit; a small bundle of it, properly adjusted, is secured in a piece of bamboo, about the length and thickness of an ordinary lead pencil. The hair of which the best pencils are made is that of the hwang-shù-lang 黃鼠狼, a kind of squirrel: it is sent from the Northern provinces to Hû-cheū 清却 州 in Chě-kiang Prov., where the pencils are manufactured. A noted shop for this article bears the name of sān-pīn-tsaî 三日藻. The pencil generally has some inscription, the name of maker, &c. The ink, $\stackrel{\square}{\rightleftharpoons}$ me, which is a compound of fine soot and some glutinous liquid, is cast in oblong cakes, with inscriptions, stanzas of poetry, and the maker's name impressed thereon. The use of ink became general about the seventh century. About A. D. 400. ink was made from soot obtained by burning millet or fir. In the T'ang dynasty, A. D. 650, ink was an article of annual tribute from Corea; this

^{*} Commonly pronounced tu 'to read.'

[†] See Eugraphia Sinensis, Art. XIX. in Transactions of the Royal Asiatic Society, vol. I. part II. p. 306, by Sir John F. Davis, F. R. S., &c. &c. The lithographed copies, which are the same as those on the sheet given in this work, are well worthy of the student's attention.

was made from the pine soot. In the Sung dynasty, A. D. 1085, Ch'ang-yu made ink from soot produced by burning oil, he scented it with musk, and called it 'dragon-composition *.' The best ink comes from Hwiiī-cheū, ab in the Prov. of Gan-hwui, the native place of Chu-fu-tsz, the philosopher; hence the impress on the ink—Chū-tsż-kiā-hiún 朱 千 家 the family teachings of Chū-tsż; an extract from which appears upon the reverse side of the cake. Chinese paper, # chi, is made of bamboo fibre; it is soft, absorbent, and smooth, commonly of a yellowish tint, and well suited to the Chinese pencil and ink. There are various qualities of it; a large proportion of the best for writing purposes is manufactured in K'ū-cheū, cb in the Prov. of Chě-kiang. Paper was first made in China in the first century of our era. Ink-stones, 行見 yên, are small oblong slabs of stone, or hard brick; they should be hard and smooth, and should not absorb water quickly. Various forms of ink-stone are in use; some of these stones are very ancient, and are elaborately carved in fantastic shapes, with ornamental cells for water. The price varies from a hundred Chinese cash (fourpence) to several hundred dollars; these latter are valuable as relics of the past, and are seldom found in the shops.

74. The two characters \overrightarrow{j} yûng 'eternal' and \overrightarrow{j} i 'clothing' contain every stroke used in forming characters. The character yûng is thus formed:—



The common designations and forms of these strokes are here given. They should be copied frequently, and their names should be learnt by the student, as his Chinese tutor will frequently employ them in explaining the formation of characters.

^{*}徽 b州 °霍

The strokes used in forming Chinese characters.



75. It is of the first importance that the student should regard the order of making the strokes when forming a character, as correctness in this will facilitate his reading the cursive hand. A few rules will be given below; and by comparing the various examples of cursive forms, given in Dr. Morrison's Dictionary (vol. II. part II.), he will see which stroke to make first.

76. The following rules may be observed: -1. Begin either at the top or on the left-hand side. 2. When a perpendicular or dash cuts a horizontal line or one leg of an angle, the latter are to be written first, (cf. radicals 19, 24, 29, 32, 33, 41, 43, &c.) 3. An angle at the top on the right side is made with one stroke, and unless pi (rad. 4.) or kwan (rad. 2.) is affixed to the left of it, the angle is made first. In radicals 18, 19, 26, 29, 39, 44, 49, 105, 124, 129, 178, 183, it is made first. In radicals 13, 20, 34, 35, 36, 76, 122, 130, the angle is made second. 4. An angle at the bottom on the left is also made with one stroke, if it be alone, or be joined to a perpendicular on the right, leaving the top or right side open, (cf. radicals 17, 22, 23, 28, 38, 45, 46, 49, 90, 206.) The characters in which Eq. (five strokes) occurs are exceptions to this rule; the angle on the left is made first; then the angle on the right; the points, next; and the horizontal, last. 5. The angles 7 and L in man 'a door' are made first on each side respectively. 6. Horizontal lines precede perpendiculars, when these cross each other; but should the perpendicular terminate with the base line, then the base line is final. 7. In such characters as the radicals 42, 85, 77, 141, 197, 204, 211, the perpendiculars above, or in the middle of the symbol, are made first. 8. In such characters as keek ['mouth' (rad. 30.) the perpendicular on the left is to be written first; and the interior of such characters as kwo 'a kingdom,' 東 yuên 'a garden,' is filled up before the base line is written.

77. The style of writing usually taught in schools is the Kiaī-shū (cf. 60. 3.), the copies for which are after the writing of Shaú-yīng [][] [];, a noted caligraphist. The characters on the fly-leaf facing this page are Shaú-yīng's copies. It will be observed that they are arranged by fours, beginning with the first column on the right-hand side. To these the author has appended observations, some of which we shall now give as briefly as possible.

鳳 寧 四 110 遍 弊 足見 齋 逯 龜 罪 鬬 察 登 鬻 逮 命 鼉 毛 莫 易 晶 工门 瑟 矣 印 磊 轟 各 毋 老严 口口 为 血了 契 谷 作 土涯 I 氂 及 止 郊和 靈 本 冲 繁 1 群区 糜 E 行 身 3 臣 口 目 鴻 日 耳 田 纒

禁鵵文和雖目 甲 自 林鳩尺 知 願 史 鈿 顧 因 靖懋 固 頫又 細 本 棗 嚚 御 樂 鳥)11 囂 菊 柒 聖 戔 馬 成 謝 升 或器 樹那築 蜀 孟 馬 哥 萬 為幾器 術 那 桑 蓋 劉柔 向 齒 變 丽冠 師恩 1 勑 伊 勺 息 響 修 部 晃 上 阚 明 匀 缪 爽 必 需 纷 T 既 志 趨 留 修 野 勿 EN 章 朝勉 亦 此上 讀 卷雲 左 = 筆 意赤 在 故旭 七 蝀 素然 皆展魁也 丰 議 尤 界無 後抛 尨 續 也 衆獎天表談父 喜 云吸 右 丕 去呼 有 册 正 且峰 茶外 舟 亞 旦峻幸 黍文 並

78. Observe:—1. The upper part covers the lower *. 2. The lower supports the upper. 3. The left exceeds the right in size and elevation. right exceeds the left. 5. The horizontal through the middle is extended. 6. The perpendicular is perfectly straight. 7. The hook should not be too crooked or too short. 8. The hook should not be too straight or too long. 9. The horizontal, short; the sweep, long. 10. The horizontal, long; the sweep, short. 11. The horizontal, short; the perpendicular, long; the sweep and dash extended. 12. The horizontal, long; the perpendicular, short; the sweep and dash diminished. 13. The horizontal, long; the perpendicular, short. 14. The reverse of rule 13. 15. The horizontal above, short; at the base, long. 16. The perpendicular on the left shorter than on the right. 17. The sweep on the left is shorter than the perpendicular on the right. 18. The perpendicular on the left is shorter than the sweep on the right. 19. The points of the dots converge towards the centre of the character. 20. Several horizontal lines should not be made of equal length. 21. When both sides contain nearly the same number of strokes they are written of equal size. 25. If the left portion be small, it should be level with the top of the right. 26. If the right be small, it should be level with the bottom of the left t.

79. The preceding information on the sounds and characters, with their proper pronunciation and formation, should be accurately learnt by the student before he proceeds with the next section on the forms of words, as far as they can be distinguished. Dialectic peculiarities would be out of place here, though it may be observed with regard to the pronunciation of words in the Peking dialect, that various modifications are necessary. In the northern parts of China aspirated syllables are pronounced very strongly, and letters which partake of the nature of aspiration have increased aspiration, which changes their orthography in a slight degree: e. g. kia, kiang, k'ü and kiun change into chia, chiang, chii and chiun; tsiang, &c., in the same way. The rule may be given thus:—All syllables having for their initial k or ts followed by i or \ddot{u} change k and ts into ch; and it may also be observed that after ch or sh the i, if final, is not sounded at all. This latter rule may be said to be common also in southern Mandarin. It ought also to be observed, that the u after ch and sh is pronounced more like the u in French, that is \ddot{u} ; so that the syllables $k\ddot{u}$ and chu in this work ought to be pronounced as if written chii in both cases. After all that can be said upon the subject of orthography, correctness in speaking lies more in the tones than in the utterance of the syllables. Various other modifications take place in the Peking dialect; but attention to the above rules and explanations will enable the persevering student to pronounce with sufficient correctness to be intelligible, though he may fail in acquiring the exact accent of the capital.

^{*} Each of these rules refers to four characters in the sheet.

[†] The remainder of these rules, some only of which are important, will be found in Dr. Bridgman's Chinese Chrestomathy, in the Canton dialect.

SECT. II. FORMS OF EXPRESSION.

§. 1. Preliminary remarks.

- 80. The Chinese do not analyse the sentence, or classify their words and expressions in any way at all approaching to the exact method pursued in European tongues; their language is therefore wanting in those grammatical terms, which are necessary for this purpose. They do indeed distinguish between nouns and verbs: the noun they call sz-tsz the 'dead word;' and the verb, hwö-tsz this 'living word.' Again, they divide words into two classes; the former class includes nouns and verbs, the latter particles, in which they include all except nouns and verbs. A native author has however recently treated the subject with considerable care; and has made other distinctions, not heretofore noted by the Chinese*.
- 81. As a compensation for the want of grammatical rules on ordinary construction, Chinese scholars study wan-fa y is the laws of style, and strive to bring their compositions into accordance with wan-h y if the rules of style. We shall do well also to follow their example; and, after commencing with an exact knowledge of the $sh\bar{\imath}ng-y\bar{\imath}n$, the tones and syllables, and the characters and words, we may proceed to the syntax of the language, in which lies the whole of its grammatical significance and force.
- 82. It is however necessary to acquire words before we can, as a native would, examine the structure of the sentence; and, therefore, though all Chinese words cannot be classified under European denominations, yet many may be placed in grammatical categories and be distinguished by the respective terms for the parts of speech. This method will be more convenient for our purpose of analysis; but it will be necessary to forewarn the foreign student of the fact that Chinese words have really no classification or inflexion, and that the distinctions of case, number, person, tense, mood, &c., are unknown to natives of China.
- 83. The meaning of a character or word and its position in the sentence will generally determine to what category it belongs. Auxiliary syllables and particles do however frequently distinguish the parts of speech. The sentence may often be broken up into groups of syllables, and each group will then form one expression. It will be the object of this portion of the grammar to show upon what principles these groups are formed, to enable the student to realise the various classes of expressions which will come under his observation.
- 84. The syllables, which are appended to strengthen the original notion conveyed by the prime syllable, are such as denote the agent, an object;—the

^{*} See Grammar of the Shanghai Dialect by J. Edkins, B. A., Lond. 12mo. Shanghai, 1853.

completion or the expansion of the idea conveyed by the word to which they are joined;—or they are purely formative in character, and produce nouns or verbs, adverbs or adjectives, as conventional usage has determined.

§. 2. On nouns.

- 85. Chinese words which may be placed in this class may be considered, either with reference to general usage or to their derivation, as,
- 1. Nouns *primitive;* i. e. such as are monosyllables bearing their primitive signification, and being most commonly used in their monosyllabic or crude form.
- 2. Nouns derivative; i. e. such as are formed by the addition of some formative syllable, and in this connection, as dissyllables or trisyllables, are always used as nouns.
- 3. Nouns composite; i. e. such as are formed by the union of two syllables bearing one of the following relations to each other:
 - a) The appositional relation, when synonymes or words conveying accessory notions are joined together.
 - β) The genitival relation, when the former of the two may be construed as if in the genitive case.
 - γ) The datival relation, when the former may be construed as if in the dative case with the words to or for.
 - δ) The antithetical relation, when words of an opposite signification are united to form a general or abstract term.
- 86. No fixed rules can be laid down with respect to any of the above distinctions; and it must be borne in mind that in the colloquial generally, and in some dialects more particularly, combinations of two, three, and four syllables, to form nouns, are very common, while the same notions would in the books frequently be conveyed by one syllable only.
- 87. Primitive nouns, or those which are monosyllabic, and are generally understood to be nouns, are such as the following:—

This class is not a large one, and the monosyllable is not intelligible to a Chinese when pronounced by itself, it must have some syllable or syllables with it: e.g. 'a man' must be called y-ko (one) jîn; fán, 'rice,' must enter into some phrase, as k'i-(chi)-fán 'to eat rice,'—'to dine,' or tsaù-fán 'early rice,'—'breakfast,' or wán-fán 'late rice,'—'dinner;' ch'a 'tea,'—'the infusion,' must be distinguished from the leaf, by such phrases as yìn-ch'a 'to drink tea,' or ch'a-yi 'tea-leaf.' Nouns which designate objects that may be numbered take with them a word in apposition with the number prefixed; e.g. ma, 'horse,' takes yi-p'i (1988), 'one,' before it, yi-p'i-mà 'a horse,' sān-p'i-mà 'three horses.'

- 88. Derivative nouns, or such words as have acquired the form of substantives by the addition of a formative syllable, are much more numerous than primitive nouns, or monosyllables. These always remain nouns, while some primitive nouns may be used as verbs. This class of words belongs chiefly to the colloquial and the lower style of composition.
- 89. Formative syllables, or those used as such, being similar to terminations in European languages, may be classified thus:
 - a) Those which generally indicate an agent: e. g. jîn 人 'man;' nù 女 'woman;' sheù 手 'hand;' fū 夫 'man, person;' tsà 子 'child.'
 - β) Those which refer to a class, and form appellatives relating to position or gender: e. g. ti if 'a ruler;' nù 'f' 'a woman.'
 - γ) Those which imply a round shape: e.g. t'en ΤΗ 'head.'
 - δ) Those which relate to objects of various forms and combinations: e. g.
 kwei † 'a lump;' tsż + 'child.'
- 90. Many characters are used as formative syllables, like the words man, boy, in herdsman, handicraftsman, footman, stable-boy, post-boy, errand-boy. The characters of this class, which generally indicate an agent, are sheù find, 'jîn \(\) 'man,' tsiáng \(\) 'workman,' or kūng \(\) 'artisan,' \(\) fū 'fellow,' \(\) hú 'householder,' tsù \(\) 'son,' \(\) or \(\) 'child.' This latter—\(\) dr—is used especially in the north of China: \(\) \(\) \(\) \(\) \(\) 'head,' \(\) \(\) sāng 'born, \(\) —produced,—a performer.'
- 91. Of those formatives which generally indicate a person or agent, the following examples illustrate the use of sheù 'hand:'

Examples of the use of jîn 'man.'

92. Nouns formed with tsiáng 'workman,' kūng 'artisan—labourer,' and fū 'a man—a fellow,' are such as these:

mù-tsiáng 大, from mǔ 'wood,'—'a carpenter.'

yîn-tsiáng 武, from yîn 'silver,'—'a silversmith.'

t'iĕ-tsiáng 武, from t'iĕ 'iron,'—'a blacksmith.'

h'wá-kūng 武, from h'wá 'to sketch,'—'a painter.'

t'ù-kūng 土, from t'ù 'earth,'—'a husbandman, a gardener.'

mà-fū 盂, from mà 'a horse,'—'a groom.'

t'iaū-fū 北, from t'iaū 'to carry on the shoulders,'—'a porter.'

kiaú-fū 東, from kiaú 'a sedan-chair,'—'a chair-bearer.'

kiŏ-fū 从, from kiaú 'a foot,'—'a courier or messenger' (1246).

nūng-fū 型, from nūng 'to cultivate the ground,'—'a husbandman.'

93. $Ts\hat{z}$ 'child' and dr 'infant' are very common formatives for designations of persons and agents, though they frequently help to form names of things, and often form diminutives.

Examples of the use of tsż 'child.'

Examples of the use of qr 'infant.'

 haî-ạr 其字 'a child.'
 mîng-ạr 名 'a name' (of any thing).

 nữ-ạr 女 'a girl.'
 hwá-ạr 黃舌 'a word.'

 jîn-ạr 人 'a man.'
 hwă-ạr 貴勿 'a thing' (esp. antique &c.).

94. T'eû 'head' and kiā (chiā) \Longrightarrow 'family' also designate persons and agents, but t'eû often means things of a round shape, or all in a piece, and places; and kiā frequently denotes a whole class,—faculty, sect, &c.

Examples of the use of t'en 'head.'

yā-t'ed \ '(a servant-girl *.' | shǐ-t'ed \ \ t' the tongue.' tüí-t'eu 生 'an enemy *.' jǐ-t'eu 日 'the sun.' laù-t'eù 老 'a gaoler.' kǔ-t'eù 管 'a bone.' fán-t'eû 首页 'a cook.' piĕ-t'eû 🚉 'a nose,' met. 'a servant.'

Examples of the use of kiā 'family.'

jîn-kiā 人 'people.'

laù-jîn-kiā 老人 'an old man,—gentleman.'

taú-kiā 道 'the medical faculty.'

taú-kiā 道 'the Tauists.' jîn-kiā \ 'people.' pàn-kiā 🏌 'a clansman.' tūng-kiā 🛊 'a master.' tién-kiā 🖟 'a shopkeeper.'

ch'uên-kiā 🏠 'ship-owners.'

fû-kiā 🔁 'the rich.' kwei-kiā 🖶 'the noble.'

95. Some other words, as hú i 'a house-door,'—for 'householder,' tí 'a ruler,'—'a prince,' nù 🌣 'a woman,' and sāng 🏗 'born,' form nouns in a similar way to the preceding, though some of these may perhaps be considered to be in apposition to their prime syllables: e.g.-

k'ai-hú IE 'beggars.' liâng-hú 岩量 'a tax-collector.' hwâng-tí 皇 'an emperor.' pîn-hú 當 'the poor.' sien-sang # 'a teacher.' ch'ŭ-sāng 蓄 'domestic animals.' | chǐ-nù 好车 'a niece.' heú-sāng 台台 'a young man.' hiŏ-sāng A 'a student.'

 $\hat{\imath}\text{-}s\bar{a}ng$ 'a medical man' (848, as above, line 7). shàng-tí - 'God.' yu-tí E 'God,' acc. to Budd.t religion. tūng-nù 董 'a virgin.' chű-nù chí-nù duced to society.'

Here also we may notice those nouns formed with sz in 'a teacher,' chù 主 'a lord,' and sheù 首 'a head, a chief:' e. g.—

^{*} The more common words are yûng-jîn the Nervant, male or female,' and ch'ea-jin 111, \ 'enemy.'

96. The designations of agents are very commonly formed by the periphrasis of an active verb and its object with the addition of the genitive particle ti f f, which throws the whole into the form of a participial expression similar to the Greek form δ $\pi \rho \acute{a}\tau \tau \omega \nu$, δ $\pi \rho \acute{a}\tau \tau \omega \nu$, &c.

tà-yù-tǐ 打頂, lit. 'strike-fish (sub. person), one who takes fish,'=a fisherman.
nā-yù-tǐ, fr. nā 拿 'to take,' has the same meaning.
tsó-sāng-ī-tǐ 做 片 意 'make trade (person),'=a tradesman.

k'ān-chaī-tǐ 行久 吐 'cut fuel (person),'=a woodcutter.

tsûng-mîng-tǐ 如 'clear-bright (person),'=an intelligent person.

nâng-kân-tǐ 白色 拉介 'able to transact affairs,'=an able man.

pān-sź-tĭ ‡ imanage business (person),'=a manager.

Nouns formed in this way are very numerous, but they are not often used in the presence of the individual whose calling or character they signify.

tǔ-shū-tǐ 讀書 'one who reads books, a scholar, a learned man.'
kiaú-shū-tǐ 女 書: 'one who teaches book-lore, a teacher.'

97. In addition to the above names of persons, others will be found under the articles treating of *composite* nouns. We will now consider those derivative nouns which designate *objects* and *localities*. Besides the use of $ts\grave{z}$ and dr 'child,' and t 'e \hat{u} 'head,' for general objects, we have t 'e \hat{u} 'head,' k 'e \hat{u} 'mouth,' and man 'door,' as formatives for designations of places.

Examples.

taū-tsž II 'a knife.' mîng-ậr 🔏 'a name.' hwá-ậr 🚉 'a word.' kīn-tsž & 'gold.' shǐ-t'eû F 'the tongue.' tiě-tsž h. 'an invitation card.' kŭ-t'eû E' 'a bone.' shén-tsà 层 'a fan.' mŭ-t'eû 'a piece of wood.' chì-t'en this 'a finger.' ji-tsž - 'a day.' tīng-tsž ∯T 'a nail.' shān-t'eû | | 'a mountain-top.' ch'uên-t'eû fi 'a roadstead' (324, 'ship'). tièn-ar 里占 'a little.' man-ar FF 'a door.' mà-t'eil " 'a jetty, -a landing-place.'

98. Composite nouns are such as are formed by the union of two or three syllables, each preserving its individual signification when in composition. They have been divided into four classes according to the relations which these syllables bear to each other. We now proceed to consider the first of these classes, namely, that in which the appositional relation predominates.

Observe.—We understand by the term apposition, words, identical or cognate in meaning, placed together and explanatory of each other; e.g. Victoria Queen of England, Cicero orator, Urbs Roma, &c.

99. One division of this class consists of words formed by the union of two syllables identical in signification or synonymous, one syllable standing as the exponent of the other. And, in the first place, those which are identical are simply *repetitions* of the same word: thus—

t'ai-t'ai 'aged lady,' used in addressing or speaking of a mandarin's lady.

naì-naì 'm' 'married lady of rank,' with similar usage.

kō-kō '' 'elder brother,—Sir,' in speaking to one of inferior rank.

100. In the next place, synonymes are united to form common nouns: thus—

fâng-ǔ 房屋 'a house.' sīn-châng 心 腸 'the heart, the feelings.'

yên-tsîng 眼睛 'the eye.' yîng-âr 嬰兒 'an infant.'

t-fǔ 衣服 'clothing.' lǐ-li 律 例 'statute-law.'

101. Two verbs are sometimes united to form nouns: e.g.—

hîng-weî 行為 'actions,' both verbs meaning to do (synonymes).
fi-yúng 對 用 'expenses,' lit. to expend—to use (cognate).
shwŏ-hwá 青克 吉古 'conversation,' lit. to talk—to say (synonymes).
fàn-lwán 反 氦 'revolution,' lit. to reverse—to rebel (synonymes).

Nouns expressing the abstract notion of verbs are generally formed in this way, just as the infinitive is used in German and Greek; das Leben, das Haben, $\tau \delta \tau \nu \chi \epsilon \hat{\nu} \nu$, &c.

102. Two adjectives are united to form nouns: e.g.—

chīn-paù precious-precious—a jewel' (216).

jîn-t'sê / benevolent-kind-kindness.' yiū-mún A 'sad-sorrowful—sorrow.'

103. Two nouns of a series are used to form the name of the class which the series expresses: e.g.—

kūng-heú 公 存 'a nobleman,' lit. duke—marquis; the series being kūng-heú-pĕ-tsż-nán 'the five degrees of nobility.'

kiā-tsž | ithe cycle; these two characters being the signs of the 1st year of the cycle. Cf. Alphabet. A. B. C.

104. Many nouns are formed by placing generic terms, the equivalents for tree, stone, flower, fish, &c., after the special object: e.g.—

lì-yû 里 魚 'the carp.' | kwei-hwā 桂 花 'the flower of the cassia.'
sūng-shú 松 枯 'the fir-tree.' | yīng-shǐ 英 石 'limestone.'

105. Under the appositional relation we must also consider the very large class of nouns formed by the use of what have been called numeratives or These correspond to our words gust of wind, flock of sheep, cup The words gust, flock, cup, are not in the genitive or possessive case, but in apposition to the words wind, sheep, wine*. The Chinese, in conversation, extend the use of such words to every object; they say, for example, 'one handle fan' for a fan, 'one length road' for a road. They are here called appositives, a term more appropriate than numeratives or classifiers. We shall now give a list of these appositives, and point out those which claim our first attention, and the classes of words to which they are prefixed in order to form nouns.

- 106. List of appositives, with the nouns and classes of nouns to which they are united in composition.
- kó 個, 營 or 个, is the most common app.; it is used with almost all objects: thus, yǐ kó jîn 'a man.'
 chǐ 葉 'an individual thing, single;' with names of animals, ships, and things that move.
- 3. kién 14 'a division;' with things, affairs, clothes.
- 4. k'wei 力能 'a clod, a lump;' with dollar, land, stone, and things of an irregular shape.
- 5. t'iau i 'a twig, a division;' with long things, roads, fish, snakes, &c., laws, &c.
- 6. tsó L. 'a seat;' with house, hill, clock, of things fixed in a place.
- 7. pàn A 'root, origin;' with book. This is a borrowed character.

^{*} Compare Lat. Urbs Roma, Ger. ein Glas Wein.

- 8. pà | i a handle; with knife, chair, things that may be held.
- 9. kān ka 'a root;' with tree, pole, club, &c.
- 10. chàng The 'a sheet;' with paper, table, bow, &c., things spread out.
- 11. chī \$\frac{1}{4}\$ 'a branch;' with pencil, branch, &c.
- 12. p'i M 'a piece or a pair;' with horse, ass, &c.
- 13. tuí 学 'a pair;' with shoes, or any thing in pairs.
- 14. shwang the 'a couple;' used as the above (13).
- 15. kien H 'an interval, a space;' with house, and buildings generally.
- 16. fung # 'to seal;' with letters, &c.
- 107. The above are the appositives in most general use. A list of those characters which are less frequently used in this way is now given. The student may by reference to Mr. Edkins' *Grammar of the Mandarin Dialect* find a more particular notice of each.
 - 1. chán 以東 'a gust of wind.'
 - 2. ching or shing Ju 'a carriage.'
 - 3. chữ th 'an axle.'
 - 4. chu 流 'a place.'
 - 5. fu 即日 'a fold, a piece.'
 - 6. kān 片 'a pole.'
 - 7. kiá to 'a frame, a stand.'
 - 8. k'eù 🔲 'a mouth.'
- 9. kiuén 卷 'a roll.'
- 10. k'ò 11 'a grain.'
- 11. kō 科 'rank, examination.'
- 12. kwàn 学 'a pipe.'
- 13. ling 合首 'a collar.'
- 14. mận H 'a door.'
- 15. meî / 'a stem.'
- 16. mien iii 'the face.'

- 17. ping thi 'a handle.'
- 18. p'ú fi 'to spread out.'
 - 19. pú 1 'a pace.'
- 20. sò Fr 'a place.'
- 21. t'ed 豆茸 'a head.'
- 22. ting TH 'a top.'
- 23. tò \$\frac{1}{2}\$ 'a bunch.'
- 24. tū 书 'a low walk.'
- 25. ts'ān 'a meal' (2786).
- 26. ts'ang fat 'a layer, a story.'
- 27. tsǐ 龄 'a joint.'
- 28. twán im 'a piece of cloth, &c.'
- 29. tsūn 🇯 'honourable.'
- 30. wān 🕏 'the tenth of a copper cash.'
- 31. weî 'a tail' (3121).
- 32. wei 1 'a person.'

Besides the above, many words are used as appositives, especially such words as express quantity of any kind, a collection or a class of objects *.

108. The second class of composite nouns includes all those whose first part may be said to stand in the *genitive* case, and which expresses the *origin* or cause of the second part, or that person or thing to which the second part belongs or has reference. Under this class also will come such compounds as have an attributive attached to them, whether an adjective or a verb in its participial form.

109. Examples of nouns of two syllables, the former of which is in the genitive case:—

t'ù-chàn 十 蒼 lit. 'soil's produce,'=produce.

t' $i\bar{e}n$ - $k\hat{\imath}$ \not \not \not lit. 'heaven's breath,'=the weather.

sháng-hâng [] 17 'a merchant's house and premises."

mận-keù | H | lit. 'door's mouth,'=door.

tién-chù 🗜 🕂 lit. 'shop's lord,'=innkeeper or shopkeeper.

niù-jǔ 牛 肉 lit. 'cow's flesh,'=beef.

110. Examples of nouns of two syllables, the former of which is an adjective or a participle:—

tá-mě 大婆 lit. 'great-corn,'=wheat. tá-hwâng 读 '(yellow) rhubarb.'

tsŏ-jī 日乍日 'yesterday.' tsŏ-yé 夜 'last night.'

wận-yŏ 文 約 'a written agreement.'

chūng-sīn 🛱 🖒 lit. 'middle-heart,'=centre.

kì-sing 記 寸生. lit. 'recording-faculty,'=memory.

kiaì-fă 解 学 lit. 'explaining-method,'=explanation.

hí-yên L 言 lit. 'sporting-words,'=a joke.

mîng-t'iēn 明天 lit. 'bright-heaven, or when the heaven becomes bright,'= to-morrow.

hién-shwo 間 言於 'idle-talk.' siaù-sā 小 斯 'a waiter or valet.'

chaū-p'aî 抖召 片单 lit. 'calling-board,'=a sign-board.

111. Sometimes designations of place and time, which are commonly used as prepositions or adverbs, enter into the composition of nouns: e. g.—

^{*} See Grammar of the Mandarin Dialect by Rev. J. Edkins, pp. 129, 130.

sièn-fūng મું કિ lit. 'forward-point, van,'=the van of an army.

kīn-jǐ ြ lit. 'now-day,'=to-day. Cf. uses of νῦν and πάλαι.

tsaù-fán ြ lit. 'early-rice,'=breakfast. Cf. Ger. Früh-stück.

wán-fán ြ lit. 'late-rice,'=the evening-meal. Cf. Ger. Abend-brod.

112. The third class of nouns is much smaller than the preceding, but it includes many idiomatic expressions. The first syllable of the two stands to the other in what we shall call the *datival* relation to its associate. The examples will show what is meant by this expression:—

hio-fang : If lit. 'learning-room,' i. e. a room for that purpose, = a school-room.

ch'a-ha 👬 'a tea-pot, a pot for tea.'

ping-li 丘 律 lit. 'soldiers'-law,'—'discipline.'

yîn-k'ú 余 lit. 'silver-store,'—'treasury.'

113. In addition to the names of agents mentioned already, the expression $s\bar{z}f\hat{u}$ if 'a teacher,' and the verb tso if 'to make,' are used to form nouns: e.g.—

nî-kū-sz-fú 元 lit. 'pure-lady,'=nun.

t'î-t'eû-sz-fú 元 元 lit. 'shave-head,'=a barber.

shǐ-tsŏ 石 lit. 'stone-make,'=a stone-mason.

shwui-tsŏ 🏋 lit. 'water-make,'=a confectioner or baker.

114. A verb and its object are sometimes used as a noun with and sometimes without the particle []-: e. g.—

k'i-t'en t 豆角 lit. 'begin-head,'—'beginning.'
hwui-sīn ロ 首 lit. 'return-letter,'—'a reply,' to a letter.

115. The verb sometimes stands in the second place with a noun before it, without any apparent construction existing between them: e. g.—

shǐ-mo 石 Dit lit. 'stone-grind,'=a grindstone. mó-shǐ too is used. shú-lung 村山 石龍 lit. 'tree-grind,'=a wooden mill for grinding grain.

116. Many of the appositives are placed after words, and they then help to form general terms: e.g.—

117. Nouns formed by uniting words antithetical in meaning are very common, and they generally signify the abstract notion implied by these extremes: e.g.—

k'ing-chúng 蟬 重 lit. 'light-heavy,'=weight.

tō-shaù it. 'many-few,'=quantity, which is the common phrase for 'how many?' or 'how much?'

ch'ang-twàn 長 好! lit. 'long-short,'=length.

kaū-tī 記 it. 'high-low,'=height.

118. The union of syllables of an opposite signification gives rise to a general term: e.g.—

hiūng-tí 見 it. 'elder brother and younger,'=brethren.
chi-mei 加 it. 'elder sister and younger,'=sisters.

119. The student should notice the class of abstract nouns which are formed by the addition of such words as k'i i breath,' fung i wind,' sīn i heart,' sing i nature,—disposition,—faculty:'—

i-ki 義 'integrity.'
nù-ki 汉 'anger.'
kĕ-ki 江 'etiquette.'
t'i-k'i 山 'elimate.'
mán-k'i 园 'sadness.'
weī-fūng 成 'dignity.'
mîn-fūng 民 'nationality.'

wận-fũng 文 'literary taste.'
siaù-sīn 小 'attention.'
chūng-sīn 中 'the centre.'
liàng-sīn 早 'conscience.'
kú-sīn 早 'fear.'
kì-sīng 青 'memory.'
sīn-sīng 八 'disposition.'

120. Other abstract nouns are formed upon the same principle as those noticed in the foregoing articles; viz., (1) by uniting synonymes, (2) by placing one noun in the genitive case before another, (3) by joining two verbs or (4) an adjective and its noun:—

- (I) jîn-ngaí 仁 愛 'benevolence, philanthropy.'
 gān-tièn 员 典. 'favour, grace.' Ger. Gunst.
 chūng-kiēn 中 目 'the midst.'
- (2) chù-i 主意 'the will,' lit. 'the idea of the master.'

 mîng-shīng 名聲 'reputation,' lit. 'sound of the name.'

 taú-lì 道 理 'doctrine,' lit. 'the rule of reason.'
- (3) mai-mai 買賣 'trade,' lit. 'to buy, to sell.'
 siaū-hwā 笑話 'joking,' lit. 'to laugh, to talk.'
 wán-tā 問答 'dialogue,' lit. 'to ask, to answer.'
 fán-pǐ 分別 'difference,' lit. 'to divide, to distinguish.'
 kūng-laū 功勞 'merit,' lit. 'to merit, to labour.'
- (4) siaù-sīn 小 (attention,' lit. 'small heart.'
 pùn-fún 太 (duty,' lit. 'own part.'
 kaū-mîng 声 名 'celebrity,' lit. 'high name.'
- proper are always significant. Foreign names are put into Chinese names proper are always significant. Foreign names are put into Chinese form by simply representing the syllables of which they are composed by Chinese characters. There are about five hundred characters used as the names of families. (See Appendix.) In addition to this sing the content individual has several designations, the principal one, which follows the sing immediately, is the ming or common 'name,' and sometimes a tst or 'title.' In addressing a person the sing is used with some polite expression suffixed, such as sien-sang 'elder-born,' siang-kūng 'Mr.' A few of the most common geographical and other proper names will be found in the Appendix.
- 122. Diminutives are formed by means of certain words, signifying little, small, prefixed; siaù-yâng 'small sheep,'=a lamb, siaù-mà 'small-horse,'=a colt; or by the word tsè 'child,' âr 'infant,' suffixed, haî-âr 'a little boy.'
- 123. The distinctions of gender and number are made in a similar way by prefixes or suffixes:—

 $f\hat{u}$ \hat{y} 'father' and $m\hat{u}$ 'mother,' $ts\hat{z}$ 'son' and $n\hat{u}$ 'daughter,' are employed with the names of relations; as, uncle, aunt, nephew, niece. They are however suffixed.

Examples.

- with the addition of tàng is 'sort, class;' instead of saying "He was a perfect Confucius," the Chinese would say "He is of the Confucius sort." But this form of expression is scarcely ever used; the notion would be conveyed in some other way, especially in the colloquial style.
- 125. When the plural is expressed in Chinese it is done in several ways, each having reference to the extent of the notion of plurality. The simplest form of the plural is the reduplication of the syllable, a method common to Japanese as well as to Chinese †. It expresses all in a general sense, in some expressions indefinite, but in others limited by locality or the nature of the subject; e. g. jin-jin \bigwedge signifies either 'every body' (but not without exception) or 'all men,' if the nature of the case or sense of the passage require it; just as we say, most men. The same may be said of ji-ji \bigcap 'daily,' which is an adverb.
- 126. The following are the syllables commonly prefixed to express plurality: those common to the conversational form are marked thus—(c.); the others are only used in the books:
 - tint. cháng (c.) 'all;' either 'every,' or merely 'all' the party in a certain place, generally of persons, followers, attendants.
 - $\stackrel{:}{\stackrel{:}{\Box}}\stackrel{*}{\stackrel{!}{\Box}} ch\bar{u}$ (c.) 'all,' in a more general sense applied to smaller classes.

庶 shú 'all,' chiefly in the books.

^{*} Cf. σῦς κάπρος of Homer.

⁺ In Japanese fito is 'man,' fito-bito 'men.'

まで (c.) 'many, or much, or often,' of men or things. 青午 hū-tō or ル子 haù-tò are stronger colloquial forms.

fân (c.) 'all,' of number or quantity; also tá-fân. ; chau 'all, generally' (seldom).

of 'all, completely,' often as an adverb.

ping is used both before and after the noun, but only in books.

127. These below are placed after the noun, and are emphatic, and commonly imply universality as well as mere plurality:—

kiaī (c.) 'all,' in company,—in universum, it comprehends the whole

 $t^{*}\bar{u}$ (c.) 'all, entirely, altogether.' This is also used as an adverb, to intensify; and then gives the sense of, at all, quite.

 $\int \int \int k^c \bar{u}$ 'all,' chiefly in books and the higher colloquial.

hiēn 'all,' also uncommon in speaking.

kù 'all,' lit. 'to raise up,' confined to the books.

計与 kūn 'all, equally.' fir tsiēn 'all,' in books especially.

tang (c.) 'a class, sort.' This is common in books too.

peī (c.), as in chàng-peī E 'elders, superiors.'

Let'uên (c.) 'complete,' also used in the books.

man (c.), the common mandarin particle for 'all;' it may be looked upon as a formative particle.

128. The most common method is to employ some number or expression which sufficiently defines the plurality of the noun to which it is attached; just as the vulgar expression 'three foot' for 'three feet,' and in German drei hundert mann, &c. The numeral determines the plurality; and frequently in Chinese a special number prefixed serves to form a general or universal notion: e.g.—

sź-hai L 'the four seas,' i. e. the world.

pă-kwān 百 官 'the hundred mandarins,' i. e. the officials.

lŭ-fâng 六 房 'the six rooms, departments,' i. e. the six boards of government.

wán-mîn 武 氏 'the ten thousand people,' i. e. all the people. kì 炎 and sú 坎, 'several,' and some other syllables determine the plural. Cf. the use of μύριος in Greek.

- 129. Those relations of words to each other, which are shown in the classical languages of Greece and Rome by the cases of nouns and by the persons and tenses of verbs, are exhibited in Chinese by the arrangement and sequence of the words themselves. The consideration therefore of the cases of nouns must be referred to the syntax of the language.
- 130. The only case which can be distinguished by the form of the expression is the *genitive*. The particles which show this are $t\tilde{\imath}$ (f) and f $ch\tilde{\imath}$; the former in speaking, the latter in the books. They have the nature of demonstratives, and stand for the s with an apostrophe—'s or s'.

§. 3. On adjectives.

- 131. Adjectives in Chinese may be divided, as the nouns have been, into three classes. Some syllables are used exclusively as adjectives, and are but seldom employed in the other grammatical relations; they may therefore be looked upon as primitive: e.g. haù, 'good,' is most commonly used as an adjective, although sometimes, with a change of tone—haû, it means 'to love.' Others seem to require the genitive particle to form them into attributives, and may be considered as derivatives. Others again are formed by the union of two or more syllables, and may be called compounds. Examples of this classification are to be found in the following articles.
- 132. The common formative particles, which strengthen the attributive force of the adjective, are ti f in the mandarin and $ch\bar{\imath}$ in the books. When these must be used depends in a great measure upon the rhythm of the expression: e. g. we may say fu-kwei-jin is would not pass, because it might signify 'to injure a man,' $ha\bar{\imath}$ being a verb 'to hurt,' but $li-ha\bar{\imath}-t\bar{\imath}-jin$ is 'a hurtful man,'—'a fierce, bad person.' The $t\bar{\imath}$ is required generally when a verb enters into the composition of the adjective, therefore especially after verbal adjectives and participles.
- 133. Adjectives of cognate signification come together and strengthen each other: e. g.—

t'sièn-pŏ) 读 请 'shallow—thin,'=poor, weak.
k'iaù-miaŭ 巧 炊 'clever—marvellous,'=ingenious.
kiēn-kú 堅 固 'firm—strong,'=firm.

134. A substantive sometimes stands before an adjective, as one noun stands before another in the genitive case, and thus intensifies the adjective: e.g.—

pīng-liâng 冰 凉 'ice's cold,'=icy-cold.
sǔ-pā 雪 白 'snow's white,'=snowy-white.

135. A noun and an adjective combined sometimes form an epithet, which is used as an adjective: e. g.—

tá-tàn-tǐ 大 川旦 lit. 'great-liver,'=brave.

kūng-taú-tǐ A i lit. 'just-doctrine,'=just.
Such compound adjectives always require H tr. . .

136. An adjective or a noun is prefixed to an adjective with an adverbial force, and it is sometimes doubled to intensify the meaning: e. g.—

tsīng-sí-tǐ 崇黃 常計 'fine-small,'=fine.

tsīng-tsīng-sí-tǐ 'very elegant.'

wận-yà-tǐ 🏌 🏋 'letters-elegant,'=of literary elegance.

wận-yà-yà-tǐ 'of a very fine style of composition.'

137. The addition of k'ò rij 'can,' or haù hj 'good, much,' to a verb forms adjectives which terminate in -able in English; they must always be followed by ti: e.g.—

k'ò-yúng-tǐ] lit. 'can-use,'=that may be used.

haù-yúng-tǐ, lit. 'good-use,'=useful.

haù-siaú-tí 💢 lit. 'good-laugh,'=laughable.

138. The quality of a verb may be attributed to a noun by a participle formed by suffixing $t\tilde{\imath}$ to the verb itself: e.g.—

hwān-hì-tǐ 韓仁喜 lit. 'to be pleased with,'—'pleasant.'

hwo-tung-ti 汽舌 重力 lit. 'to live and move,'—'lively, active.'

139. The quality or possession of the quality of a noun may be attributed to another noun by prefixing yiù \overrightarrow{f} 'to have,' and suffixing ti to the noun whose quality is concerned: e.g.—

yiù-li-k'i-ti 力 氣 lit. 'has-strength,'=strong.

yiù-liàng-sīn-ti di conscientious.

yiù-haù-í-sź-tǐ 意 温 'with a good meaning or intention.'

140. Many adjectives are formed from nouns, especially when they are descriptive of the shape or material of which any thing is made: e. g.—

$$s\acute{z}$$
- $f\~{a}ng$ - $t\~{i}$ $|\iflaye{}\fill$ $\iflaye{}\fill$ it. 'four-square,'=square.
 $ch\`{i}$ - $t\~{i}$ f 'of paper.' $k\~{i}n$ - $t\~{i}$ f 'of gold,'=golden.

These latter sometimes take the verb tsó 1 ft, 'to make,' between the noun and the particle ti:

Such are however to be regarded as the participles from compound verbs, corresponding to the German compound verb handhaben.

141. Some adjectives with an intransitive or passive signification are formed by prefixing jin, 'man,' to the verb: e. g.—

Such adjectives as wolfish, hateful, &c., are sometimes expressed by conventional terms, sometimes by circumlocutions: e. g.—

yiù-chaī-lâng-tǐ sing-tsîng, lit. 'has-wolf's-disposition,'=wolfish; or, siāng-chaī-lâng-tǐ, lit. 'like-wolf,'=wolfish. jîn-k'ò-hạn-tǐ, lit. 'men-can-hate,'=hateful.

142. Adjectives formed in European languages by means of a privative syllable are made by prefixing $p\tilde{u}$, 'not,' to the simple word, and adding $t\tilde{t}$, the genitive particle: e. g.—

pŭ-siāng-kān-tǐ 相 于 'unimportant.'

pŭ-shwûng-kw'ai-tǐ 東 中 'unwell' or 'unwholesome.'

pŭ-hô-mŭ-tǐ 和 基 'inimical.'

- 143. In this way many adjectives are formed in Chinese as equivalents for adjectives not produced by means of a privative syllable, but of a more emphatic power: e. g. for bad, ugly, hearty, the Chinese would frequently say pŭ-haù-tǐ, 'not good,'—'bad,' instead of o Thi. All such require tǐ, the genitive particle.
- 144. There is no form of the adjective which expresses the degree of intensity or comparison. Words which may be mentioned in this connection as affording a means of expressing the comparative and superlative are, $k\bar{a}ng$ if 'more,' chi if 'to come to (the extreme point):' e.g.—

kāng-haù-tǐ, lit. 'more good,'—' better.'

kāng-yúng-í-tǐ 容易 lit. 'more easy,'—'easier.'

chi-kaū-tǐ 吉 lit. 'extremely high,'—'highest.'
chi-jîn-ngai-tǐ 仁 愛 lit. 'extremely benevolent,'—'very benevolent.'

145. The verb kiā 加口 'to add' is sometimes joined to kāng: e. g.—
kāng-kiā-kî-kw'aî-tǐ 台 小光 'more wonderful.'
kāng-kiā-paú-peî-tǐ 智 | 'more precious.'

146. Several words are used to express the superlative or the intensity of the attribute, such as ting 頁 'the top,' ki 叔 'the extreme point,' hàn 景 'to hate,' ts'ǔ 郑 'to cut off,' haù 好 'good,' t'ai 大 'great,—very,—too,' shīn 試 'very,' tsüí 最 'very.'

Examples.

tìng-siaù-tǐ 小 'very small,'—'the smallest.'
tìng-haù-tǐ 小 'the best.'
kǐ-tá-tǐ 十 'very great,'—'the greatest.'
hùn-tō-tǐ ② 'very many,'—'the most.'
ts'ǔ-miaù-tǐ 小 'most wonderful.'
haù-tō-tǐ ② 'very many*.'
t'ai-ts'ièn-tǐ ② 'very shallow.'
shīn-k'ù-tǐ 士 'very bitter.'
tsüí-yaú-kīn-tī 田 〇 'very important.'

- 147. The relations expressed by the forms of comparison, and by what is commonly called the superlative, are often produced by syntactical arrangements; the consequence is that the simple adjective must often be construed into European tongues by the forms of comparative and superlative: e. g.—In choosing long articles a person might say, 'This is longer by a foot;' the Chinese would say, 'This is long by a foot,' i. e. longer than some others, or 'this is a good one' for 'this is a better one.' This is syntactical; the duration and the extent being expressed after the word to which they respectively refer.
- 148. There are certain words with which it may be well to make the student acquainted here, because they are employed to state the comparison of the adjective in circumlocutions: e. g.—pì f 'to compare,' thus 'you compared with him are tall' for 'you are taller than him.'

^{*} Cf. the English phrase, a good many.

yiù 又 'again, still,' tsai 頁. 'again, more.' Cf. the use of encore in French and noch in German:—encore mieux, noch mehr.

hwân ; 'still, again, beside;' pron. haî in coll.

 $y\ddot{u}$ it o pass over, and $y\ddot{u}$ -fa \ddot{q} , which is more colloquial, in such phrases as 'the more, the better.'

 $y\ddot{u}$ ito exceed, more, used as $y\ddot{u}$.

149. Sometimes verbs are used to express the idea of adding to or lessening the force of the adjective: e. g.—

 $ki\bar{a}$ \prod 'to add,' e. g. $ki\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{o}$ 'add-many,'=greater.

kiēn 🎢 'to subtract,' e. g. kiēn-siaù 'reduce-small,'=smaller.

150. The particle $y\bar{u}$ f_{i} 'in, at,' which is used chiefly in the book-style, is also employed in conversation in the sense of 'in comparison with,'—'than.' Likewise several other words and expressions which signify 'a little.' These are placed after the adjective, as adverbs, and induce the notion of comparison: e. g.—

ché-kó shí tá yǐ-tièn-âr 'This is great a little,' 這个是大一點兒 for,'This is a little greater.'

- 151. Another very common way of forming the superlative is by prefixing the ordinal number ti-yi $\stackrel{\checkmark}{\rightleftharpoons}$ 'first,' or the expression shi-fan $\stackrel{\checkmark}{\Longrightarrow}$ 'ten parts,' to the adjective in its simple form. Both these expressions give the notion of entirety, completeness. The Chinese employ the decimal system, and therefore ten parts means the whole. The word man $\stackrel{\checkmark}{\Longrightarrow}$ 'ten-thousand, all,' is also used as an intensifier.
- 152. When the verb tǐ 行: 'to obtain' is employed after the adjective, and is itself followed by some word which signifies limit, extremity, urgency, severity, &c., as 根 hàn, 版 kǐ, 以 kìn, 利 信 lí-haí, the superlative is formed by the whole expression, which denotes a very high degree of the quality signified by the adjective: e. g.—

kw'ań-lŏ-tň-hàn 快 樂 'very glad indeed.'

sīn-siēn-tǐ-kǐ 亲广 鲜 'very fresh indeed.'

k'ù-nân-tǐ-kìn 芸 葉惟 'very hard to bear.'

hiūng-tǐ-lí-haí X 'very fierce indeed.'

153. The following expressions are often suffixed to show the degree of

the attributive: pǔ-kwo 不 過 'not pass-over,' pǔ-shíng 不 赊 'not over-come,' 不 完 pǔ-wān 'not finish;' also 了 不 得 liaù-pǔ-tǐ 'finish not obtain,' i.e. extremely. The characters 朱 shū 'to kill,' tsín 盡 or (監 'to complete,' k'í 綦 'strict,' k'aī 豐儿 'excellent,' ts'àng 貨 'to follow,' shǔ 禾 'to kill,' sān 禾 'abundant,' are also used in this connexion.

154. Certain other words, which signify great, upper, good, are used for the same purpose: e.g.—

tá-fān-pǐ 大 分 別 'very different.'
shàng-ku-tǐ 上 古 的 'most ancient.'
liàng-kiù-tǐ 良 久 的 'of a very long time ago.'

§. 4. The numerals.

155. The cardinal numbers are,

156. The remaining numbers are formed thus:

157. The ordinal numbers are formed by prefixing ti (i, j), 'order,' to the cardinal numbers; and up to the *tenth*, $ch'\bar{u}$ (j), 'to begin,' may be prefixed instead of ti. In expressing the days of the month, the cardinal numbers may be used alone for the ordinals.

158. Fractional parts are expressed by the character fān 'to divide,—a part;' the half by pán 4., and the quarter by kĕ [].

Examples.

pán-jǐ 生: 日 'half a day.'
jǐ-pán 日 'a day and a half.'
sān-fān-chī-yǐ 三 分 之 一 'one of three parts,'= +,
kiù-fān-chī-sź 九 分 之 匹 'four of nine parts,'= +,

159. Many characters not properly numerals are used as numerals in

Chinese as in Hebrew and Greek. The characters in passages from noted authors are employed as numerals. Such are the first four characters of the Yi-king; viz. yuên , hîng , hīng , hing , which serve for the numbers one, two, three, four, for volumes of books &c. The characters shàng 'upper,' chūng 'middle,' and hia' 'lower,' are used for works in three parts or volumes. The three months of each season are designated by mâng , chūng 'mid, and ki .

160. The characters commonly used for the purposes of higher calculation and chronology &c. are two series, one consisting of ten, the other of twelve characters; viz.—

- (a) 甲, 乙, 丙, 丁, 戊, 己, 庚, 辛, 壬, 癸, and kiā, yī, pìng, tīng, wù, kì, kāṇg, sīn, jîn, kweī,
- (B) 子, 丑, 寅, 卯, 辰, 巳, 午, 未, 申, 酉, 戌, 亥. tsz, ch'eù, yîn, maù, ch'ên, sz, wù, wí, shīn, yiù, sǔ, haī.

161. The following diagram and dates of the first year of each cycle since the birth of Christ will be of use to the student.

A. D. 4. was the first year of the 45th cycle.

	11. 2. 4.	was one mise y	car or one 4	Sur cycle.	
A. D. 64.	46th.	A. D. 66	4. 56th.	A. D. 1264.	66th.
124.	47th.	72	4. 57th.	1324.	67th.
184.	48th.	78	4. 58th.	1384.	68th.
244.	.49th.	84	4. 59th.	1444.	69th.
304.	50th.	. 90	4. 6oth.	1504.	$7 ext{ oth.}$
364.	51st.	96	4. 61st.	1564.	7 1 st.
424.	52nd.	102	4. 62nd.	1624.	7 2nd.
484.	53rd.	108	4. 63rd.	1684.	73rd.
544.	54th.	114	4. 64th.	1744.	74th.
604.	55th.	120	4. 65th.	1804.	75th.
				1864.	76th.

	甲	2	丙	丁	戊	己	庚	辛	£	癸
子	ı		13		25		37		49	
H:		2		14		26		38		50
寅	51		3		15		27		39	
加		52		4		16		28		40
辰	41		53		5		- 17		29	
巳		42		54·		6		18		30
午	31		43		55		7		19	
未		32		44		56		8		20
申	21		33		45		57		9	
酉		22		34		46		58		10
戌	ıı		23		35		47		59	
亥		12		24		36	·	48		60

162. The distributive form of the numeral is expressed by a circumlocution; thus 'one a-piece' might be translated $k\check{o}-y\check{v}-k\acute{o}$ yiù $y\check{v}-k\acute{o}$, lit. 'each one has one.' The phrases 'by ones, twos, threes,' are turned into $y\check{v}-k\acute{o}$, $y\check{v}-k\acute{o}$; $b\check{i}ang-k\acute{o}$, $b\check{i}ang-k\acute{o}$, $b\check{a}n-k\acute{o}$. Repetitions of the words or expressions have a distributive force; thus, $y\check{v}-ts\acute{a}ng$, $y\check{v}-ts\acute{a}ng$ in layers' or 'by layers,' $ti\acute{a}a\acute{a}-ti\acute{a}a\acute{a}$ 'each article.'

163. Proportionals which answer to the question 'How many times as much or as great?' are expressed by adding the word pei 台書 to the cardinal number, and placing both after the adjective; thus, tō-shǐ-pei 美一十 宣言 'ten times as great:' and if a fractional part, by adding the word fān;—tō-wù-fān 美五. 为 'five-tenths greater.'

§. 5. The pronouns.

164. The personal pronouns commonly used in the Mandarin dialect are,

In the dialects these syllables change or are replaced by others: e.g.—In Peking, tsà 口气 'I.' In Shan-tung, ngàn 位 'I.' In Shanghai, nùng 仁宗 'you,' and nā 何以 'ye or you,' and ī 伊 'he.' While the plural is formed by adding nī to the 1st person, making ngò-nī 'we;' and kā to the 3rd, making ī-kā 'they.' In Fǔ-kien, lān and gwa 'I,' lì 'you.' In Canton, k' 文字 '下 'he.'

165. There are besides many characters used as pronouns in the books, which are seldom found in the conversational style; e.g.—

166. The Chinese have no possessive pronoun, but its place is supplied by the genitive case of the personal pronoun: e.g. $ng\partial - ti$ 'my or mine,' ni - ti 'thy or thine,' $t^*\bar{a}-ti$ 'his,' $ng\partial - m\partial n-ti$ 'our or ours,' $ni - m\partial n-ti$ 'your or yours,' $t^*\bar{a}-m\partial n-ti$ 'their or theirs.' No difference is made between the possessive pronoun when used as an attribute to a noun and when used as the predicate to a sentence: e.g.—

'This is our house,'=ché-lì shí ngò-mạn-tǐ fàng-tsż;

'This house is ours,'=ché-kien fâng-tsz shí ngò-mạn-ti.

Sometimes the particle ti $\not\exists \exists j$ is omitted when the euphony of the expression would be injured by its presence.

167. For the reflexive pronouns self, own, &c., tsź = 'self,' kì = 'self,' and their compounds tsź-kì and tsź-kiā = are used after the personal pronouns: e. g.—

 $ng\hat{o}$ - $ts\hat{z}$ - $k\hat{i}$ 'I myself,' or $ts\hat{z}$ - $k\hat{i}$ alone; $n\hat{i}$ - $ts\hat{z}$ - $k\hat{i}$ 'you yourself.'

When the subject of the proposition is well known, ts - k i may stand for any person, but it usually is employed for the first person only. ts in 'dear,

related,' is used for 'self;' as well as $sh\bar{\imath}n$ \Longrightarrow 'body' and $\Im \bar{\imath}_{l}^{\dagger} k\bar{\imath}ng$ 'body:' also the compounds $ts\bar{\imath}n$ - $ts\acute{\imath}$, $k\bar{\imath}ng$ - $ts\bar{\imath}n$ *.

169. Our English word such, for that or this sort, considered as a demonstrative pronoun, would be rendered into Chinese by any of the above pronouns followed by yang the 'sort, fashion:' e.g.—

ché-yáng tǐ sīn-tsîng 心 情 'such a disposition.'
nā-yáng tí tsiāng-kiūn 情 宜 'such a general.'

170. The plural of these demonstrative pronouns, when not shown by the context, is expressed by the addition of $si\bar{e}$ $\begin{tabular}{l} \begin{tabular}{l} \begi$

171. The want of relative pronouns in Chinese is supplied partly by the demonstratives and partly by the interrogatives, to which they are correlative: e. g. nà-kô, 'that,' is also 'which?' interrogative, and 'which,' the relative; shuî in the partly interrogative, is also 'who,' the correlative of it; sò in that which,'—'what,' which seems to be a relative, is in its nature, first, indicative of place, and, secondly, an adjunct to a demonstrative expression, and is frequently a substitute for chè in the definite article. The method of expressing relative clauses must be referred to the syntax, where examples will be found.

172. The interrogative pronouns most common in Mandarin are the following: $shu\hat{i} = \frac{1}{16} (\text{who})^2 + \frac{1}{16} (\text{which})^2 + \frac{1}{16} (\text{which})^2 + \frac{1}{16} (\text{which})^2 + \frac{1}{16} (\text{who})^2 + \frac{1}{16} (\text{who})^$

^{*} So the old English adjective sib, for 'self,' meant 'related.' Cf. Key's Lat. Gr. p. 49.

The book word $h\partial$ $\overrightarrow{\Pi}$ 'what' is sometimes used in the colloquial style: e. g. $h\partial$ - $j\hat{\imath}n$ 'what man?' for $shu\hat{\imath}$ - $j\hat{\imath}n$ 'who?' $K\hat{\imath}$ 'several' is used as an interrogative in such phrases as $\overrightarrow{\Xi}_{K}$ $\overrightarrow{\Pi}_{K}$ $k\hat{\imath}$ - $sh\hat{\imath}$ 'what time?' for when? Some other characters and phrases having reference to this subject will be found under the adverbs.

173. The interrogative pronouns used in the books may here be mentioned. Such are, shǔ 实 'who?' cheū 声 'who?' hǒ 灵, kì 豈, and yên 声 sometimes take the place of hô 何 in the books. See the articles on the interrogative particles.

174. The indefinite pronouns are sometimes merely the interrogatives used as correlatives: shuî 'who?' used for any body; shīmmô 'what?' used for any; meù 某 'a certain,' for some. None is expressed by 'not any,' therefore by mǔ-shīmmô 〉反, i. e. 'not what.' So also kì 英! 'several,' for some, is an indefinite pronoun, as well as an interrogative. Līng 叧 and pǐ 別 express 'other' and 'another:' kǒ 當 'each,' meī 每: 'every;' tō 爹 'many, much;' siē 上 'a few, a little,' and sú 以 'several.'

175. Whoever, whatever, whichever, and wherever are formed by prefixing suî-pién | 连 使 lit. 'follow convenience,' pǔ-lún 不 論 lit. 'not talk of,' or pǔ-kwàn 不 當 lit. 'not control,' or pǔ-k'ū 不 詢 lit. 'not prevent,' to shímmô-jîn 'who?' shímmô tūng-sī 東 世 'what thing', or shímmô sź-tsîng 事. 情 'what affair;' or to 那 東 nà-lì 'where:' e. g.—

- (1) suî-pién shímmô = 'whatever' or 'whichever.'
- (2) suî-pién shímmô-jîn = 'whoever.'
- (3) suî-pién shímmô-tūng-sī = 'whichever thing.'
- (4) pŭ-kwàn shímmô-sź-tsîng = 'whichever affair.'
- (5) $p\bar{u}$ -k' \bar{u} $n\hat{a}$ - $l\hat{i}$ = 'wherever' (properly an adverb).

176. When these expressions take a general sense and mean 'all,' one of the following words is employed: fân 人, tá-fân 人, chữ 荒山, chứng 坑山, tá-kaí 人 , and several others. The whole is very often expressed by the numeral 'one' with a word signifying to complete, to cut off, and the like: e. g. yǐ-tsùng 炎点, yǐ-t'úng 炎亢, yǐ-ts'ǐ 一刀. The words meaning 'all' are too numerous to mention here; reference may be had to Articles 126, 127, and to the Dictionary for the rest.

177. Both is expressed by liàng-kó 兩 個, 'two,' after the personal pronouns; and neither by kǒ 名 or 包: meī, 'each,' followed by a negative:

 $ng\partial-man\ liang-ko=$ ' both of us' or 'we two;' $k\eth-jin$ or $me\bar{\imath}-jin\ m\check{\imath}=$ ' neither of them.'

Only or alone is expressed by tu-yi-ko jum - f 'one alone.'

178. Before leaving the present section, upon the pronouns, we must notice some of the nouns which the Chinese employ when in European tongues the pronouns would be used. These expressions arise out of the desire to excel in politeness and courtesy, and some of them are of very ancient origin; they correspond to our terms Sire, Sir, your worship, your honour, and other titles of respect. Their terms of humility are not used among us, except in the close of a letter, your humble servant, &c.

179. The substitutes for the personal pronoun I and my are,

siaù-tí 小 弟 lit. 'small younger brother,' for I.
siaù-k'iuèn | 大 lit. 'small dog,' for my dog.

yû 記 lit. 'stupid,' for I, especially in letters. chīn 民 'I, the emperor.' A merchant calls himself 'trader,'—shāng 百 or pùn-shāng 本; and this word pùn 'own' is frequently prefixed to the names of offices and professions, in edicts especially, in which the personal pronoun is never used; e. g. pùn-hién 鼠氣 'I, the district magistrate,' and pùn-chīng 武 'I, the assistant magistrate.' In addressing the emperor various titles are used; a tributary prince says kwā-jîn 云 人 or kū-jîn 玉 or yu-siaù-tsz 小 玉; a minister of state calls himself chīn 盂 'your subject;' if a Manchu, nú 叔又 'your slave.' The people in writing to superiors call themselves tsiú-jîn ☲ 人 'sinners,' and î 東義 'ants.'

180. The characters which most commonly enter into such phrases are siaù 小 'small;' tsién 版 'mean, poor;' hân 实 'cold, chilly;' pí 版 'bad, vulgar;' ts'aù 量 'grass, coarse.' The characters shé 全 'cottage' and kiā 家 'family' are often used for my.

Examples of the above.

pí-síng 姓 'vulgar surname,' for my name.
hán-shé 全 'chilly cottage,' for my house.
hán-mán 門 'cold door,' for my home.
siaù-t'ù 行 'little scholar,' for I.
ts'aù-tst 章 'coarse title,' for my title.
kiā-fú 父 'family father,' for my father.

shé-ti 弟 'cottage younger brother,' for my younger brother.
ts'ién-fū-jîn 夫人 'mean lady,' for my wife.

181. Substitutes for the second personal pronoun are commonly the names or titles of honour of the individuals addressed; and the possessive pronouns corresponding to thy, your, &c., are such expressions as the following, made with the words kwei 貴 'noble,' tsūn 章 'honourable,' kaū 青 'high,' líng 合 'good,' 老 laù 'old,' tá 大 'great,' &c.

Examples with kwei in 'noble, generous, honourable.'

kwei-sing ht 'your noble surname.'

kwei-kwö 👿 'your noble country.'

kwei-kāng 🏌 'your noble age.'

kwei-fù ff 'your noble palace,' for your house.

kwei-t'i Hi 'your noble body.'

182. Examples with tsūn 章 'honourable,' kaū 请 'high,' ling 令 'good,' and tá 大 'great.'

tsūn-mîng 🔏 'your honourable name.'

tsūn-kiá 📜 'your honourable carriage,' for you, Sir.

tsun-pi 套 'your pencil,' for your handwriting or your composition.

kaū-sheú 濤 'your high age.'

kaū-kién E 'your high opinion.'

ling-lang K 'your good son' * (lang=pavilion).

ling-t'ang ' 'your good mother' (t'ang=hall).

ling-ngaí 要 'your good daughter' (ngaí=love). She is also called tsiên-kīn 千 会 (lit. '1000 gold pieces') 'your treasure.'

tá-haú 🎁 'your great title,'=your literary designation.

tá-mîng 🖺 'your great name.'

The same words are applied to form other designations and forms of address, but chiefly in letters, in novels, and in the language of etiquette.

^{*} Cf. Monsieur votre fils in French and Liebe Mutter in German.

183.

Examples with laù 2 'old.'

 $laù-y\hat{e}$ iff 'old father,' for Sire or Sir.

lau-hiūng T 'old elder brother,' for you.

So also tá-hiūng \(\tau(\) ('great'), t'aī-hiūng \(\tau(\) ('eminent'), jîn-hiūng \(\tau(\) ('benevolent'), hiēn-hiūng \(\tau(\) ('wise'), in addressing superiors, for you.

tá-jîn, laù-tá-jîn, and laù-tá-fū + are used in addressing people of rank and position in society. And instead of the personal pronouns, the name of the individual, or of his office or his title, is substituted in speaking or writing: e.g.—

shîn-fû i y 'spiritual father,' for I, you or he.

tá-laù-yê 大老爺 'your Excellency' or 'your Highness.'

t'aı́- $s\bar{z}$ \uparrow \uparrow igreat general,' to military mandarins, for you.

t'ai-hwang-ti 太皇帝 'great emperor,' of or to the emperor.

pí-hiá 片片 'your Majesty' (pí=steps to a throne).

tsŭ-hiá 🏗 🏲 'you,' especially in letters and documents.

184. The characters fán in 'a pattern, a rule,' yên in 'the countenance,' in conjunction with taī in 'exalted' or taî 'a high tower or terrace,' are used in elegant writing for you: e.g.—

kwāng-fán \(\frac{1}{2}\) 'bright pattern,' for you.

k'ù-fán + 'earnest rule,' for you.

ī-yên /義 'polite figure,' or t'aī-yên 'exalted face.'

 $t'a\bar{\imath}$ - $f\bar{\imath}$ 'your honoured name,' when asking a person's name.

 $n\bar{\imath}$ - $f\bar{u}$ f 'you,' used for Confucius.

t'aī-tìng [] 'lofty tripod,' when addressing high officers of state.

M-wei الله distinguished persons,'=Gentlemen!

185. A few other expressions of this kind are formed with paù precious, valuable, 'sháng 'upper,' and hiá 'volume'.' e.g.—

paù-hang i 'valuable line of buildings,' for your shop.

paù-cheū 前 'precious barge,' for your boat.
fù-sháng 前 'up in your palace,' for your house.
shé-hiá 含 'down in my cottage,' for my house.
kŏ-hiá 首 'under your pavilion,' for you.

Also t'aī-sháng or t'aī-hiá for you.

§. 6. The verb.

- 186. Some syllables in Chinese are the representatives of characters, which are commonly used as verbs; these are *simple* and *primitive*: many others however are formed into verbs by their connexion with certain auxiliaries and adjuncts; these may be designated *compound* or *derivative*.
- 187. Although monosyllables are sometimes found to express a verbal notion, they are almost always assisted by some word of cognate signification, or by some syllable which completes the crude notion expressed in the primitive. This is most general in the spoken language of China, and makes it a polysyllabic rather than a monosyllabic tongue, as it is commonly supposed to be. The stems in all languages are monosyllables in the same way.
- 188. Moods and tenses, as such, are quite unknown to the Chinese. No distinction is made between active and passive verbs; nor are the persons or numbers noticed at all by them. The context and the circumstances under which any thing is said are the chief guides to the exact sense of any passage. Time and mode are very clearly shown by the meaning of the whole sentence, or by the conditions under which it has been uttered.
- 189. The composition of verbs may be considered under nearly the same heads as the composition of nouns. We have compound verbs formed (a) by repetition, or by the union of synonymes or words bearing a cognate meaning; (β) by joining to the primitive an auxiliary verb, without which the former would convey only a general notion; (γ) by prefixing to one verb another, denoting power, origin, fitness, desire, intention, obligation, &c.; (δ) by placing certain verbs before or after others, to give the idea of intention or completion to the action; (ϵ) by uniting two verbs, similarly to those mentioned above (β), but which when united give rise to a notion different from the meanings conveyed by the parts separately, or one of them is equivalent to a preposition; and (ζ) by adding the proper object to the verb, like the cognate accusative in Greek, and thus forming a new verb, (cf. Art. 36.) These are general heads merely; it will be necessary to notice other formations below.
- 190. Verbs of the first class are very common, and are such as the following:*
 - (a) k'ān-kién 看 見 lit. 'look-see,' i. e. see! or seeing.

^{*} The Chinese verb, when standing alone, must be construed into the imperative mood, or the infinitive mood as a substantive.

k'ān-k'ān 看看 lit. 'look-look,' i. e. look! k'ī-húng Hr III lit. 'cheat-deceive,' i. e. cheat. hiún-kiaú 貴川 娄久 lit. 'instruct-teach,' i. e. teach. ying-kai 底 討 lit. 'should-ought,' i. e. ought.

191. One verb follows another as an auxiliary to limit or perfect the notion of the primitive: e.g.-

(β) lúng-shà 弄 希 lit. 'do-kill,' i. e. kill.

lúng-hwaí 弄 +寒 lit. 'do-injure,' i. e. spoil.

kwei-pai 居 廷 lit. 'kneel-worship,' i. e. prostrate.

tiě-sž 保 加 lit. 'fall-die,' i. e. fall down dead.

kǐ-chîng 結 所以 lit. 'unite-complete,' i. e. knot and become, or clot.

192. The following verbs, denoting power, origin, fitness, &c., require another verb as a complement:-

(y) nang 声音 'able, can' (physically). k'ò 可 'can, may' (morally). k'i #1 'arise, begin.' уй Ж 'long for, wish.' ying Mi 'it is fit.' f it is right."

k'ú ‡ 'go;' cf. Hebrew idiom. yaú III 'will, intend.' kaí 言文 'it is proper.' táng 当 'ought.'

193. Examples of the above with their complements are,

nang-fi The 'can fly.' nang-siè (can write.' nang-tsó 1th 'able to do.' k'ú-tsó | 'go to do.' yau-tu 讀 'will read,' fut. 'read!' yu-sž 切 'wish to die.' or 'wish to read.'

ying-ting is 'should listen.' k'ò-k'ú 土 'may go.' k'ò-tsố the 'may do (it).' k'i-tsó 'begin to do.' kaí-táng 'i' 'ought to bear,' = ought.

194. The common auxiliary verbs which stand before or after the principal verb and determine the tense into which it must be construed are, (1) for the perfect tense, lian T 'to finish,' kwó 清明 'to pass over,' yiù 有 'to have,'

or wân 完 'to finish,' placed after the other verb; and ì 已 'already,' kī 既 'finished,' and tsâng 曾 'already done,' placed before it. (2) For the future tense, yaú 要 'will,' yuén 原真 'desire,' k'àng 旨 'shall' or 'will,' tsiāng 將 'to approach,' or pǐ 以 'certainly, must,' placed before the verb.

195. Compounds of two of these are also formed in the colloquial style, and thereby the particular tense is more clearly defined: e. g.—

(8) sà-liaù 万仁 'is or was dead.' k'ú-liaù 土 'is or was gone.'

tǔ-kwó 言賣 or tǔ-kwó-liaù 'has read or studied.'

sià-kwó 寫 or siè-kwó-liaù 'has written.'

kǐ-wân 日之 or kǐ-wân-liaù 'has eaten.'

yiù-shǎ 百 系章 or yiù-shā-liaù 'has killed.'

ì-chí 至 or ì-kīng 榮 chí-liaù 'has arrived.'

tsâng-shǐ 食 or tsâng-kīng shǐ-liaù 'has eaten.'

tsang is more commonly found with a negative prefixed: e.g.—

pu 不 'not,' or wi 未 'not yet.' wi-tsûng-laî 'not yet come.'

ch'ang "言 'to taste, to try,' is also prefixed occasionally to the verb to form the past tense; thus, ch'ang-tsŏ 作 'already done.'

196. Examples of the forms by which the future tense is expressed:
yaú-k'ú 英士 lit. 'wish-go,'=will or shall go. tsiāng 崇 may be prefixed.
tsiāng-tsó 崇 情 lit. 'approach-do,'=shall do, or about to do.
pǐ-hîng 从 行 lit. 'certainly-walk,'=shall walk, or must walk.

The distinction of tense is often shown in the context by some adverb of time: e.g. 'to-morrow I shall go' would be expressed in Chinese by 'to-morrow I go;' 'yesterday I came' would be expressed by 'yesterday I come.' These peculiarities do not belong to this part of the grammar, but will be found treated of in the syntax, under the section on tenses.

197. The next class of verbs is formed by the union of two verbs, the latter of which is supplementary to the former; and from the union of their separate notions a third verbal notion is formed. The adjuncts which serve for this purpose are very numerous. The most common are mentioned here:—

去 k'ú 'to go away' (cf. ἐκ-, weg-). | 1主 chú 'to rest in, to fix.' # sān 'to scatter' (cf. dis-, zer-). Γ hiá 'down' (cf. κάτα-). 見 kiến 'to see.' 前 pá 'to cease.' 着 chǒ 'to take effect.' 淮 tsín 'to enter in' (cf. hinein).

水 laî 'to come' (cf. els-). 詳麗 lùng 'to collect' (cf. zusammen-). k'ì 'to arise, to begin' (v. Art. 192).

定 ting 'to fix.'

温 kwó 'to pass over or by,' 完 wan, 里 pǐ, 盐 tsín, 'to finish,' and some others are used as the above, and occupy the place of inseparable prepositions in the compound verbs of some languages.

198. As examples of the uses of the above we may give the following:—

(ε) kì-ti 📆 lit. 'record-obtain,' 'to remember.' t'ing-ti lit. 'listen-obtain,' 'to hear.' nd-ch'ŭ 🛊 lit. 'take-go out,' 'to bring out.' t'aû-ch'ŭ ilit. 'run-go out,' 'to escape.' fān-k'aī / lit. 'divide-open,' 'to separate.' tseù-k'aī ‡ lit. 'walk-open,' 'to walk away.' tseù-sháng | lit. 'walk-above,' 'to walk up.' tiū-k'ú 🏥 lit. 'throw-go away,' 'to throw away.' fă-sán 🎉 lit. 'shoot out-scatter,' 'to expend (money &c.).' wán-kiến Hi lit. 'hear-see,' 'to hear of.' yű-kién il lit. 'meet-see,' 'to meet with.' tsó-pá th lit. 'make-cease,' 'to finish making.' shuí-cho lit. 'sleep obtain,' 'to go to sleep.' paù-tsin [] lit. 'walk-enter,' 'to walk in.' k'aú-chú 貴 lit. 'rely on-rest in,' 'to depend upon.' ān-hiá 🛱 lit. 'lay-down,' 'to deposit.' lā-lùng 11 lit. 'drag-collect,' 'haul up.' chán-k'ì it lit. 'stand-arise,' 'stand up.'

shwŏ-tíng 黃兒 lit. 'say-fix,' 'decide.'

yaû-kwó 其器 lit. 'row—pass over,' 'row past.'

yúng-wân 耳 lit. 'use-finish,' 'use up.'

t'ân-pǐ 琩聞 lit. 'harp-finish,' 'finish playing.'

hîng-tsin 🌴 lit. 'walk-complete,' 'go through entirely.'

laî K 'come,' k'ú L 'go,' or lian J 'finish,' are added to these compounds to express that the action of the verb has taken effect.

199. Other syllables of like meaning are sometimes used instead of the above; e.g. taû 到, 'to arrive at,' is used for laî 來, 'to come,' in some expressions: and many other words, which signify to complete, end, die, kill, conquer or spoil, help to strengthen the verb; such are, ch'îng 成, yǐ 言之, shǎ 氣水, sà 秋, sà 秋, sà 秋, shīng 縣, yīng 羸, shū 氣水, and paí 貝久.

200. Another class of verbs is formed by the addition of the cognate object, or that on which the action of the verb naturally falls. This object is not often added in English, but it is in Chinese, and it increases the perspicuity of the expression. The following are examples:—

(以 tǔ-shū 讀賣 書: lit. 'read-book,' for read, (for study.)

siè-tsz it lit. 'write-character,' for write, (for practice.)

kı or chı-fan 🎁 🏗 lit. 'eat-rice,' for eat, (any meal.)

shé-tsüí 並久 單言 lit. 'forgive-sin,' for pardon.

t'ing-mîng ii fa lit. 'listen to—order,' for obey, (cf. obedio, fr. ob-audio.)

k'iuèn-jîn 韓加人 lit. 'advise-man,' for exhort.

201. Adjectives sometimes enter into the composition of verbs to intensify or limit the meaning of the primitive: e.g.—

līn-kín 语言近 lit. 'come-near,'—'approach.'
chàng-tá 長 大 lit. 'increase-great,'—'enlarge.'
pal-chíng 指语证 lit. 'place-correct,'—'arrange.'
wǔ-k'ūng 控 坛 lit. 'scoop-hollow,'—'excavatc.'

202. There are a few idiomatic verbal compounds made by the union of a verb and an adjective or a noun: e.g.—

tǐ-tsiǐ 得 罪 lit. 'obtain-fault,'—'offend.'

chūng-i 中 讀 lit. 'hit the centre—idea,'—'please, suit.'

203. In addition to the above, the following idiomatic forms of expression may come under the head of compound verbs:

1. Those formed with tù 打 'to strike;' e. g.—

tù-swán 算 lit. 'strike-calculate,'—'plan, reckon.'

tù-kǐ 岩吉 lit. 'strike-knot,'—'tie.'

tù-shuí 員重 lit. 'strike-sleep,'—'go to sleep.'

tù-t'īng 量 lit. 'strike-listen,'—'listen.'

tù-saú 岩市 lit. 'strike-sweep,'—'sweep.'

tù-shwuì 大 lit. 'strike-water,'—'draw water.'

2. Impersonals and phrases in which the subject follows: e.g.—

hiá-yù T lit. 'falls-rain,'—'it rains,' (or lŏ-yù th.)

hiá-sǔ | thia-subject follows: e.g.—

hiá-sǔ | thia-subject follows: e.g.—

hiá-sǔ | thia-subject follows: e.g.—

hiá-sū | thia-subject follows: e.g.—

hiá-yù thia-subject follows: e.g.—

hiá-subject follows: e

204. Many nouns are used as verbs, though they do not differ from them in form; such being always monosyllables, the context only can determine the part of speech to which they belong: e.g.—

tiēn 里古 'a point, a dot;' also means 'to punctuate, to blot out, to light, to nod.'
taū 详 'a road, reason;' also means 'to say,' (cf. λόγος=ratio and oratio.)
shwŏ-hwā 青克 青舌 'conversation;' also means 'to talk.'

205. Frequentatives, or verbs which express the repetition or continuation of an action, are formed in Chinese by repeating the primitive syllable: e. g.—

mô-mô 磨 'to go on rubbing.'
t'iaú-t'iaú 比 'to jump about.'
hŏ-hǒ 喝 'to keep on drinking.'
ch'ŭ-ch'ŭ k'ī 出 氣 'giving off steam constantly.'
t'an-t'an siaú-siaú 談 矣 'keep talking and laughing.'

The repetition of the verb does not always give it the frequentative force, but only intensifies the meaning of the simple primitive.

206. Iteratives, that is, verbs which express the reiteration of the action, as in English when the phrases backwards and forwards, again and again,

'come,' k'ú \(\preceq\) 'go,' sháng \(\preceq\) 'above,' and hiá \(\preceq\) 'below:' e. g.—

tseù-laî-tseù-k'ú 🛨 'walk backwards and forwards.'

fī-sháng-fī-hiá 🎉 'fly up and down.'

siàng-laî-siàng-k'ú * think again and again."

207. Inceptives, or verbs which indicate the beginning of an action, are formed by adding k'à-laî 中, 'begin-come,' to the primitive: e.g.—

hwá-shwŏ-k'ì-laî 責任 責任 'begin to talk.'

k'ŭ-k'ì-laî 'begin to cry.'

tŭ-k'ì-laî 言賣 'begin to read.'

liu-ch'u-k'ì-laî 流 出 'begin to flow out.'

k'i-laî has not always this force; sometimes it stands as the complement to another verb: e.g.—

li-k'ì-laî T, 'stand up!' or 'stood up,' as the context may require.

208. Desideratives, or verbs which express the desire or wish to do any thing, are formed by prefixing yaú to want,' yǔ to wish,' yuén fi 'to desire,' followed by tsó to make,' or weí fi to become,' to the primitive, if it be a noun, but without tsó or weí if it be a verb: e.g.—

yaú-kǐ 日之 'wish to eat.'
yǔ-tsó 坐 'wish to sit.'
yuén-hîng 行 'wish to do.' (B.)
yaú-tsó-wâng 王 'wish to be a king.'
yuén-weí-chù 士 'wish to be master.'

209. Diminutives, or verbs which indicate the diminution of the action expressed by the primitive, are formed by adding $y\check{\imath}$ - $ti\bar{e}n$ -dr — \Box 'a little,' or by the repetition of the verb with $y\check{\imath}$ — 'one' placed between: e.g.—

k'aī-yǐ-tiēn-ḍr 開 'open a little.'
shaù-yǐ-tiēn-ḍr 中 'lessen a little.'
tàng-yǐ-tàng 学 'wait a little,—delay.'
tseù-yǐ-tseù 走 'walk a little,—promenade.'

210. Verbs which express being provided with are formed by prefixing yiù it to have to some noun. These verbs are mostly employed as participles (cf. Art. 139): e. g.—

yiù-kŏ-tǐ 角的 'having horns.'
yiù-yên-tsîng-tǐ 眼睛 'having eyes.'

211. Causative verbs are formed by prefixing kiaū 中 'call,' kiaú 孝文 'teach,' shí 中 'cause,' líng 合 'command.' kiaū 交 is used for 孝文 incorrectly; and jè 芸 'provoke' is also used in the colloquial style: e.g.—

kiaú-laî 桑女 來 'cause to come.'

The object of the verb always comes between the two parts of it.

kiaū-ngò-tsó-kwān 我 做官 'cause me to be a magistrate.'

kiaú-ngò-pŭ-nang-kiang 不能 講 'prevented my speaking.'

shí-t'ā-sheù-k'ù 仙 奏 芸 'caused him to be miserable.'

212. The *passive* form of the verb is produced by prefixing one of the following verbs to the active form, which may be then considered as a dependent noun; thus with

kién 🗒 'to see,' kién-siaú 😤 'to be laughed at.'

sheú 📆 'to receive,' sheú-k'ī 🏗 'to be insulted.'

k'i or ch'i | 7, 'to bear,' k'i-kw'eī | to be reduced.'

ting 骨負 'to receive,' ting-kiaú 桑奴 'to be instructed.'

ts'aū 道 'to meet with,' ts'aū-k'īn 拉 'to be seized.'

wei 為 'to become,' wei-jîn-sò-hān 人 所 怕 'to be hated.'

213. Several auxiliary verbs are also used with some primitive verb and a noun to express the *passive*, by which form they must generally be translated: such auxiliary verbs are,

pei or pi 校 'to suffer, to reach to,' usually translated 'by.'

nd 拿 'to take, to use;' also yúng 用 'to use.'

yaī ‡矣 'to rest upon, depend on,' (seldom.)

tsiāng 將 'to take, to seize;' with ì 以 'to use.' (B.)

Also yū 於 or 于 'in, by,' and mung 蒙 'favoured by' (in books).

214. The following are examples of the uses of these auxiliary verbs, showing how they help to form the passive:—

pí-hù-shǐ-liaù 被虎食了'was eaten by a tiger.'
pí-t'ā-hwá-ngò | 他話我'I was told by him.'
nd-shǐ-t'eù-tà-sź-tǐ 拿石頭打死的'was killed by a stone.'
tsiāng-taū-tsż-shǎ-tǐ 將刀子殺的'was killed with a knife.'
yúng-piēn-tsż-tà-tǐ 用鞭子打 | 'was beaten with a whip.'
kˇī-yü-jîn-chè 欺於人者'one hated by men.' (B.) (Cf. Art. 212.)
mûng-kˇî-paū-hū 蒙其保護'protected by him.' (B.)

215. Two other modifications of the verb, the reflexive and the reciprocal, which in Greek are effected by the middle voice, are produced in Chinese by the syllables $ts\hat{z}$ if 'self' and $si\bar{a}ng$ is 'mutual' being placed before the verb: e.g.—

tsź-shǎ-tsź-kiā 自 荣 自 家 'to kill one's self.'
siāng-lún 相 論 'to discourse together.'
siāng-yú | 遇 'to meet with any one.'
siāng-haù | 好 'to be on good terms with.'

§. 7. The substantive verbs.

216. Of these there are several, which vary according to the nature of the case in which they are used, and the connexion of the subject with the predicate in a sentence. The logical copula, 'is,' is expressed by the verb shi $\stackrel{\square}{\leftarrow}$. It denotes either that the predicate is, or, that it is generally supposed to be, an attribute of the subject by nature; it corresponds to the original use of $\phi \dot{\nu} \omega$, $\pi \dot{\epsilon} \phi \nu \kappa a$ in Greek, from which come fui, fuerim &c. in Latin, used as tenses of esse 'to be.' Shi in the kù-wận $\stackrel{\square}{\rightarrow}$ 'ancient style,' i. e. the language of the classics, is used as a demonstrative.

With shi, tsiù 引, 'then,' yè 们, 'also,' and tù 司 'all,' are united; thus tsiù-shi, lit. 'there-is,' 'that is;' in Peking dialect sometimes k'ò-tsiù or k'ò-chiù (可): yè-shi, lit. 'also-is,' 'besides it is:' tù-shi (古), lit. 'all-is,' 'completely is,' 'is quite.' These are recognised phrases in the colloquial mandarin dialect.

217. The verb wei fig 'to do, to exist, to become,' is also used as a substantive verb, but only when the notion of becoming something by some

conventional arrangement is implied, not as is the case with shi , when the relation between the subject and predicate is a natural consequence. In "Fire is hot" use shi. In "The Yellow River is the boundary" use wei. Also especially before designations in the predicate: "He is (wei) a slave." This distinction may be said to apply more particularly to the style of the books than to that of conversation. The adjuncts used with wei will also serve to indicate its meaning in some passages: e. g.—

nâng-wei 🏗 🏗 'able to be' or 'to become.'

i-wei VI E 'consider to be, take to be.'

使唤之女篇婵shí-hwān-chī-nù weí pī

'Servant women are called $p\bar{\imath}$,' i. e. slaves.

天子以四海為家 t'iēn-tsì ì sź-h'aì wei kiā

'The son of heaven considers (all within) the four seas to be (his) family.'

218. When the substantive verb implies location, the verb tsai if 'to exist or consist in' is used; and when the possession of some attribute, the verb yiù if 'to have;' e. g. in "he is here" use tsai, in "this is polite" use yiù: thus—

t'ā tsaí ché-lì 仙 在 清 裡 'he is here.'

ché-yáng yiù lì 這樣有體 lit. 'this has politeness,' i. e. this is polite.

t'ā-tsaí-kiā 他在家 lit. 'he is in family,' i. e. he is at home.

tsà-yiù-lì 此 有 理 lit. 'this has reason,' i. e. this is reasonable.

219. The verb tsai in refers to place or position, and means to be in or to consist in; the verb yid in means 'to have some quality,' as an acquired possession, or as an accident, so 'to happen to be;' and consequently in the beginning of the sentence it always means 'there is' or 'there was,' like the use of avoir in French (cf. il y a, il y avait).

Examples.

tsaí sīn mîn 在親民* 'consists in renovating the people.'
yiù jîn shwo 有人讀 'there are men (who) say,' on dit.

220. The word nat 77 (rar. 11), which was originally demonstrative, and

^{*} This is from the Tá-hiö The Great Science,' the first of the "Four books," a work belonging to the Chinese classics. It begins with the sentence, "The principle of the great science consists in renovating the people, in perfecting the original virtue (in self), and in resting only in the summit of excellence."

signified 'there' as a designation of locality, and afterwards as a mark of time 'then,' seems to take the place of the substantive verb occasionally, especially in the book-style. It is found with all the preceding substantive verbs, and may be said to partake of the meaning of each. It denotes also 'to wit, it may be.' In the following example I and I are in parallel clauses of the same nature:

德乃天理,色是人欲tǐ naì t'iēn-lì, shǐ shí jîn-jǔ 'Virtue is heaven's order, vice is man's lust.' (v. Dict. 3311. for jǔ.)

The word hi 信 'belong to, is, am,' which is used in the books and in the Canton dialect, corresponds in force to shi 是 and naì 儿.

bear, to meet with,' are also used in the senses of the substantive verb. The two former are used as wei 'to be called, to become;' the latter conveys the notion of a definite article, or of a demonstrative pronoun, like ille in Latin; e. g. tāng-ch'ū | 切 'that early time,' i. e. 'in the beginning:' tāng-ch'aī-tī | 黃 竹 'that sent one,' i. e. 'he who is (or was) sent.' And when tāng is used in this way, it serves to point out the subject or predicate, and so renders the use of a positive copula unnecessary; (cf. the use of shi 是 in the kù-wận, v. Art. 216.)

222. Very frequently the verb substantive is understood in consequence of the form of the sentence, or when an adverb or conjunction follows: e. g.—

sũng nì tsĩ haù 送 你即好 'to present it to you will be good.'
maì-maí pǔ t'ūng 買賣不誦 'commerce cannot be carried on.'

§. 8. Mood and tense.

223. A Chinese verb when uttered by itself expresses (1) the notion of the verb in the imperative mood; e. g. tseù-k'aī har 'walk away!' laī k'come!' or (2) the abstract notion of the verb as given in the infinitive mood; it then stands as a substantive: e. g. tseù-k'aī 'to walk away,—walking away,' laî 'to come,—coming,' are virtually nouns; so t'aû-ch'ù har 'to run away,' i. e. 'the act of running away,' is either a noun or simply the imperative 'run away!' When however we construe t'aû-ch'ù 'running away,' something more is expected,—it is then only the subject to a sentence. It might for example be said, t'aû-ch'ù pù-haù 'running away (is) not good.' So that in truth a Chinese verb can only be construed properly into the imperative when it stands alone.

224. The indicative mood has no special sign. When the subject,—a noun or pronoun,—precedes a verb, that verb is generally in the indicative mood, but not always, for it may be a verb which is a mark of some other mood, or

it may be in the *imperative*; e. g. nì laî, lit. 'you come,' may be (1) you come (ind.), (2) come! (imp.), or (3) when you come; in the first and third cases being entirely dependent upon the context: thus 'you come here twice a-day' would be nì laî chê-lì yǐ t'iēn liâng-tsź; and 'when you come, I shall go,' nì laî wò tsiû k'ű.

226. The potential mood is designated by the verbs may, can, would, should, must being prefixed, and by the addition of certain particles and auxiliary words to the primitive: e.g.—

k'ò-tǔ 可讀 'you may read' (permissive).

nâng-lá 能力: 'I can pull it' (potential, physically).

hwüi-tsó 會 做 'I can do it' (potential, intellectually).

yaú-k'ān 要看 'I would look' (optative).

yaú-k'ān 要看 'you should look' (hortative).

pǐ-kì 込 記 'you must remember' (obligatory).

pǐ-sź 込 妃 'he must die' (necessarily.)

227. The following particles and auxiliary words affixed to the verb also show that some tense of the potential mood will be required:—

tǐ 行子 'obtain' is suffixed, and followed by laî 'come,' k'ì 'arise,' or chŏ 'take effect,' or some other auxiliary to mark the direction or completion of the action (see adjuncts, Art. 197). Examples will be found in the syntax.

k'ò-ì 可 以, lit. 'can-use,' is prefixed commonly to indicate the potential, either of permission or capability.

haù ha 'good' is used before verbs for the potential: e. g. haù-k'ú 'it is well to go,' i. e. go! (hortative), or 'it is well (for you) to go,' i. e. you may go (permissive). The word pá 'to cease,—it is enough,' is put after the verb in this latter sense: e. g. k'ú-pá, lit. 'go, and that is sufficient,' for you may go*.

228. The *infinitive* mood, that is, the verb without an adjunct, which is construed into English with 'to,' is always appended to some word, which expresses capacity, fitness, readiness, goodness, facility, difficulty, and the like,

^{*} Cf. Naaman's reply to Gehazi, "Be content, take two talents," 2 Kings v. 23.

and by this it is governed. It also follows such words as require the infinitive of *purpose* or *result*, just as in English. The position alone shows the infinitive mood: thus—

(1) ngò nâng-tsố tsž 我能做此'I am able to do this.'

t'ā k'ò-ì tseù 他可以走'he is able to walk.'

nì yíng-kaī k'ǔ 你應該吳'you ought to cry.'

yû-pí hîng-waí 預備行外'prepared to travel.'

haù-k'ān í-pīng好看義兵'it is good to look at the volunteers.'

yúng-ī siè-tsź 容易寫字'it is easy to write characters.'

nā-yáng nân-tsó 那 樣 蜇 做 'in that manner it is difficult to do.'

- (2) t'ā-laî kién-ngò 他來見我 'he came (or is come) to see me.'
 ngò-mạn laî k'ǐ-fân 我們來吃飯 'we are come to dine.'
- or $ch\bar{\imath} \gtrsim being$ suffixed to the verb in one or other of its tenses; by a preposition being prefixed; or by the position of the verb after certain words denoting like or dislike: e. g.—
 - (a) pién-tǐ 完 'discussing' (pres. part.).

 hwüî-tǐ 口 'returning.' paī-tǐ 丰 'paying respects.'

 pién-liaù-tǐ 完 了 'discussed' (past part.).

 hwüî-liaù-tǐ 口 'returned.' pǐ-liaù 岸 'escaped, fled.'
 - (β) tsaí-k'aù 在 孝 'in examining' or 'in being examined' (gerund).

 tsaí-múng | 夢 'in or whilst dreaming.'
 - (γ) haú-yaú 好 遙 'fond of rowing.' haú-lún 論 'fond of arguing' hận-tǔ 狼讀 'hates reading.'

haù-yaû might be, 'good to row;' and with ti, 'well-rowed.'

hwān-hì pién-lún 歡喜辯論 'fond of arguing.'

230. The participles thus formed by the verb and some appended particle hold a very important place in Chinese construction, the syntax and the context however determine the precise meaning in each case: e. g. The above (a) piên-ti, in ngò piên-ti, makes, 'what I am discussing,' or piên-ti 'he who discusses.' The preposition tsai ft, 'in,' must be prefixed, if the sense of

the present participle is to be given; thus, tsai-pien-ti 'discussing,' or 'in the discussion of.' (See the constructions with ti Hay in the syntax.)

- 231. The tenses of the verb can be distinguished only by the various adverbs of time or by the context; and all that can be done here is to give the auxiliaries, which may be said to form the principal tenses, the present, the past, and the future. The numerous modifications of the time of an action are produced by the arrangement of the words and the form of the sentence, for which the student may refer to the syntax. It will be necessary even here to follow the synthetical rather than the analytical method, and to show the student how the exact meanings of the tenses found in European languages are conveyed in Chinese.
- 232. Pronouns and adverbs of time must be used in order to show the true state of the verb. If the verb $t\breve{u} \stackrel{.}{=} \dddot{\Xi}$ 'read' be taken, the forms of the present tense are,—
 - 'I read (habitually or constantly)' ngo $chang-sh\hat{\imath}$ $t\breve{u}$ ($\ddot{\Box}$ $\ddot{\Box}$ 'always').
 - 'I am reading (now or periodically)' ngò în-tsaí tǔ (景, 在. 'now').
 - 'I do read (truly)' ngò shǐ-tsaí tǔ (實: 任 'truly').
 - 233. The past tense with liau T, kwo in , &c.
 - 'I read (last year)' k'ú-niên ngò tǔ-liaù (去年 'last year').
 - 'I have read (at some former time)' siēn-shî ngò tǔ-kwó-liaù (土 日 'before time').
 - 'I have read (what you wrote)' nì siè-tǐ, ngò tǔ-liaù.

The past tense is sometimes formed by the auxiliary verbs yiù 有 'have,' and wân 完, i 已, kí 民, ts'âng 国, &c. (v. Art. 194): thus—

- 'I have written (the thing in hand)' ngò yiù-siè-liaù
- 'I have passed over (this river before)' ngô tú-kwô-liaù
- '(We) have known (the contents &c.)' chī-taú-liaù 知道了*.
- 'He once said (so and so)' yiù-shî t'ā kiàng-liaù 有 時 他 請 了. Without liaù it would be 'sometimes he says or speaks.'
- 234. The rule about the past tense appears to be, that when the perfect with 'have' is required, and refers to an action recently performed, it is sufficient to add liaù, kwó-liaù, wân, or wân-liaù to the simple verb; but when the past indefinite is meant, either the context must show it, or some word such as

^{*} This is the phrase written by the emperor in vermilion on the documents which are presented to and perused by him.

siēn 光 'before,' siēn-shî | 日子 'formerly,' ts'ûng-ts'iên 洋 must be used as well as the above auxiliaries, and if the action refer to a definite time, and that time be mentioned, the auxiliaries may be dispensed with, if the rhythm permit: e.g.—

'I loved her most' (past indef.) sien ngaí t'ā tīng-tō 先 愛他頂多.

- 'He wandered ever' (past indef.) t'ā ts'ûng-ts'iên yiû-hîng 遊. 行.
- 'We learnt too late' (past indef.) ngò-mận t'ai-chí hiờ liaù 太 遲 學.
- 'Last night I heard it' (past def.) tsŏ-yè ngò t'īng-liaù tsà 昨夜聽了此.
 'To-day I forgot' (past def.) kīn-t'iēn ngò wáng-kì-liaù 今天望記了
- 235. The perfect tense of impersonal verbs is formed by adding $lia\hat{u}$: e. g.—

hiá-liaù-yù 🔭 🦷 'it rained,' (occ. in replies.)

Probably the following expression may be referred to this form:

tseù liaù shwii liaù 走了大了 'it has been run with water,' i. e. water has been fetched: (v. Mr. Wade's Hsin-tsing-luh, Cat. of t'iēn.)

236. Tsāng or tsâng [1] (1) 'to add,' (2) 'already past,' prefixed to the principal verb, denotes the past tenses, often the pluperfect, but this depends upon the sense of the passage and the sequence of clauses:—

sǐ-niên t'ā ts'âng-yù jîn-shǐ 昔年他曾與....認識 'In former years he had formed acquaintance with'

tsù-sháng ts'àng-tsó-kwó 祖上曾做過....*

'Among his ancestors there had been'

237. The expression of future time is effected by the words $ya\hat{u} \stackrel{\text{ili}}{\not\sim}$, $tsi\bar{a}ng \stackrel{\text{ili}}{\not\sim}$, or pi $\stackrel{\text{ili}}{\not\sim}$ being prefixed to the verb:—

 $ya\acute{u}$ gives the force of will, shall, should, or must, and is frequently used in compounds; e.g. with $k\acute{u}$ $\stackrel{1}{\rightleftharpoons}$ 'to go,'

- 'I shall go (to-morrow)' ngô yaú k'ú.
- 'You shall go' or 'you must go (to-morrow)' nì yaú k'ú.
- 'Go!' or 'Do you go (now)!' nì yaú k'ú.
- 'He must go (any time)' t'ā yaú k'ú.

^{*} These examples are from the Hang-lea-mang *I by 'Dreams of the Redchamber,' a modern work in the Peking dialect.

tsiāng is used with yaú, and gives the force of about to; e.g. with laî of 'to come,'

- 'I am about to come,' ngò tsiāng laî.
- 'He is about to come,' t'ā tsiāng-yaú laî.

pi is also joined to yau, and then the force of the compound is must, certainly shall or must; e.g. with t'au to run away,'

- 'I must run,' ngò pǐ t'aû.
- 'You must certainly run,' nì pǐ-yaú t'aû.

The addition of an adverb of future time always compensates for the absence of these special words: e.g.—

'To-morrow I shall go,' mîng-t'iēn ngò k' \acute{u} (orall) \not mîng-t'iēn 'to-morrow').

'In the afternoon you will go,' hiá-wù nì k'ú (F 4 hiá-wù 'this afternoon').

'By and by he will come,' mân-mân t'ā laî (| mân-mân 'by and by').

§. 9. The adverbs.

- 238. Monosyllables commonly used in an adverbial sense are primitive (a); those of two or more syllables formed by the addition of a distinctive or formative particle are derivative (β); and those formed by a locution, and which may be resolved into their separate parts, are compound (γ): e.g.—
- (a) Primitives are not very common in the colloquial dialect, but are frequently met with in the books.
 - ì 已 'already,' kīn 今 'now,' heú 後 'after,' siēn 先 'before.'
- (β) Derivatives are such as the following, formed by adding jû 切 'as,' i to use,' or jên 狀 'yes,' to the primitive: thus—

 (γ) Compounds are such as are made up of two primitives, or of two or more syllables which constitute a phrase: e.g.—

ì-kīng [Will lit. 'already-now,'=now.

ch'ā-pǔ-tō 美 不 爹 lit. 'error not much,'=almost.

ts'ûng-tsiên 省首 lit. 'from-before,'=formerly.

t'iēn-t'iēn 天 天 lit. 'day-day,'=daily.

mân-mân-tǐ 槾 | 白 lit. 'slow-slow,'=slowly.

tá-kiā 大 家 lit. 'great-family,'=altogether.

yǐ-ts'ź — 次 lit. 'one-series,'=once.

- 239. It will be seen that nouns, adjectives, and verbs enter into the composition of adverbs, and that the same principle of formation is followed as was observed with respect to the other parts of speech. Synonymes are united or syllables are repeated to intensify the meaning; or the repetition implies the continuation of the prime notion; or the words are in construction, viz. as subject and verb, as adjective and substantive, or as attributive genitive and the word which it qualifies; or the compound is an idiomatic locution.
- 240. Before giving lists of the adverbs, it will be well to classify them with regard to their meanings and uses in Chinese.
 - 1. Adverbs of time; in reply to the questions 'when?' and 'how long?'
 - 2. Adverbs of place; replying to 'where?' 'whence?' and 'whither?'
 - 3. Adverbs of manner; in answer to 'how?'
 - 4. Adverbs of intensity and frequency; in answer to 'how often?' 'how much?'
 - 5. Adverbs of quantity; in reply to 'how great?' or 'how much?'
 - 6. Adverbs of quality; in reply to 'of what sort?'
 - 7. Adverbs of affirmation, of doubt, and of negation.
 - 8. The interrogative adverbs are the correlatives of the above.
- 241. The common adverbs of time, simple and compound, which answer to the question 'when?' are the following:—
 - 1. The simple or primitive adverbs.

kīn 合 'now' (nunc, νῦν). hiến 民 'now' (jam, ἤδη, à présent).

fāng 方 'now, just now' (nunc or tunc). kāng 剛 'recently, just now.'

piên 民 'then' (tunc). tsiú 京 'then' (tum).

siēn 先 'before' (antea). heú 後 'after' (postea).

ch'ũ 幻 'at first' (ἀρχήν). sǐ 旨 'formerly' (olim, pridem).

kù 古 'of old' (τὸ παλαίον). hiáng ਿ 'hitherto' (adhuc).

châng 旨 'always' (semper). wí 未 'not yet' (nondum).

2. The compound adverbs of time.

 kīn-t'iēn 天 'to-day.'
 hién-kīn 玩

 tsŏ-t'iēn 日乍 'yesterday.'
 tāng-kīn 當

 mîng-t'iēn 明 'to-morrow.'
 jû-kīn 如

ts'iên-t'iēn 前 'day before yesterday.' hién-tsaí 現在 fāng-ts'aî 方 緣 'then, just now.' i-kīng 己經 'now' or 'at present.'
pién-shí 是 'then.' tsiú-shí 就是 'then.' tsǐ-kǐ 即 刻 'immediately.'
tsaí-siēn 在先 'formerly.' sǐ-shî 目 'in ancient times.'
châng-shî 目 'always,' or shî-shî | 'at most times.' wû-shî 無 'never.'
yiù-shî 有 'sometimes.' tō-shî 多 'often.' tsaù 早 'early.'
wú-ts'ông 未 曾 'not yet.' heú-laî 來 'afterwards.' chí 遲 'late.'
haù-kiù 日 久 'a long time ago.' mǔ-hiá 目 下 'at present.'
shâng-kù 上 古 'in high antiquity.' wán-sháng 日 上 'in the evening.'
ts'iên-sān-jī 前 三 日 'three days ago.' kwaí-kwaí 共 'soon.'
kwó-sź-t'iēn 過 四 天 'four days hence.'
ts'ûng-ts'iên 徉 前 'formerly, from of old.'

tsùng-yiù 紹言 lit. 'generally have,'=always.

Duration of time is shown by the position of the adverb after the verb.

242. The common adverbs of place, which answer to 'where?' are the following:—

ché-lì 這裡 lit. 'this interior,' for tsaí ché-lì 'in this interior,'=here.
ná-lì 那 | lit. 'that interior,' for tsaí ná-lì 'in that interior,'=there.

The syllables tí 仙, kw'eí 鬼, t'eù 豆, ch'ú 處, fāng 方, miên 面, and piēn 嵏, which all denote place, are used with the demonstrative (cf. Art. 168), often preceded by the preposition tsai 在 'in:' thus—

tsaî-tsz-tí, lit. 'in this place,'=here.

tsaí-ché-piēn, lit. 'on this side,'=here.

tsaí-ná-t'eú, lit. 'on that head (for place),'=there.

tsaí-pì-ch'ú, lit. 'in that place,'=there.

yū-tsž 🏗 🏗 and tsaí-tsž 🏗 lit. 'in this,'=here.

tsaí-pì 很 lit. 'in that,' and ná-sò-tsaí 則 所 lit. 'that place,'=there.

243. It will be seen that almost all the adverbs are produced by the construction of words with one another. Many of the prepositions are used as adverbs in construction with verbs, as we say 'he is gone before,' t'ā-ts'iên-k'ú.

Examples of adverbs of place ('where''). $ch\acute{e}-l\imath$ 'here' (hic). $n\acute{a}-l\imath$ 'there' (ibi).

nì-piēn-ché-lì, lit. 'your side here,' 'here by you' (isthic).

t'ā-piēn-ná-lì, lit. 'his side there,' 'there by him' (illic).

tsai-yǐ-yáng-tí-fāng, lit. 'in the same place' (ibidem).

tsai-liáng-piēn, lit. 'in two (for the two) places,' 'in both places' (utrobique).

ch'ú-ch'ú* or kŏ-ch'ú 'every where' or 'in each place' (ubique).

pŭ-hiaú-ti-tsai-ná-lì, lit. 'not know in which place,' 'in some place' (alicubi).

suî-piēn-tsai-ná-lì 'anywhere you please' (ubivis and usquam).

tsai-pǐ-ti-tí-fāng, lit. 'in other's place,' 'elsewhere' (alibi).

pŭ-kū-shimmó-tí-fāng 'wherever' (ubicunque).

pŭ-tsai-ná-lì 'no where' (nusquam).

244. The adverbs of place, which express direction from a place, are formed by prefixing ts'ang the 'to follow' to the simple adverb of position: e.g.—

ts'ûng-ché-lì 'hence' (hinc);
ts'ûng-ná-lì 'thence' (inde);
ts'ûng-nì-piēn-ché-lì 'from your place' (isthinc);
and so of all the others.

245. The adverbs of place, which express to or towards a place, are formed by prefixing $ta\hat{u}$ Ξ 'to reach to' or $hi\acute{a}ng$ 'towards' to the simple adverb of position: e.g.—

taú-ché-lì 'hither' (huc).
taú-ná-lì 'thither' (eo).
taú-nì-piēn-ná-lì 'to your place' (isthuc).
taú-kô-piēn-ná-lì 'to that place' (illuc).
hiáng-ché-lì 'towards this place.'

246. Adverbs of manner are generally derivatives formed by the addition of jên to some adjective or verb. Such are, hwŭ-jên 'suddenly,' twàn-jên 'decidedly,' in Art. 238.

Other examples of adverbs of manner are,—

Like is expressed by the form

247. The repetition of the adverb or adjective forms an adverb of manner frequently: e. g.—

pîng-pîng-ān-ān 平。| 安: | 'peacefully, comfortably.'

hwān-hwān-hì-hì 韓(| 喜! | 'gaily.' mán-mán-tǐ 提 'slowly.'

^{*} The notion conveyed by repetition is most, a good deal, and never seems to mean absolutely all or every.

248. Adverbs of *intensity* and *frequency* are such as the following; they are sometimes called adverbs of comparison:—

kāng 更'to change,' adv. 'more, again.'

tsaí 再 'again,' also yiú 又 .

tìng 丁頁 'the top,' adv. 'very.'

kǐ 極 'the extreme point,' adv. 'very.'

hwân 環 'moreover.'

fǔ 復 'again.'

Some other syllables, used to form the comparative and superlative of adjectives, are adverbs (v. Arts. 146, 148). Words denoting 'to pass over, exceed,' and the like, are used adverbially; e. g. kwó jij, yű jij, &c.

t'ai 太 and t'i denote 'too.'

tō 多 'many or much' is used adverbially.

pǔ-kwō 不 追 lit. 'not pass over,'=only.

shǐ-fān 十 分 lit. 'ten parts,'=very.

tá-fán 大 凡 lit. 'great, general,'=mostly, generally.

yǐ-siē — 些 lit. 'one few,'=a little.

shaù 少 'few' and liŏ 畧 'an outline' are also used for little.

p'ò 肉 'rather' is less frequent in conversation.

249. The adverbs which express frequency, and answer to the question 'how often?' are such as,—

sháng-hiá 上下 'almost.' tá-yǒ 大 岩白 'nearly, about.'

. jǐ-jǐ 日 | or t'iēn-t'iēn 天 | 'daily.'

niên-niên 年 | or suí-suí 歲 | 'yearly.'

tō-shì 多時 'often.' yiù-shì 有 | 'sometimes.'

250. Several adverbs of *quantity* have already been given, and others are formed by the following constructions: e. g.—

ché-yáng-tō 多 lit. 'this manner much,'=so much (tantum).

t'aí-tō or t'ĕ-tō 太 多 'too many,' or 'too much' (nimium).

taú 到 'to arrive at,'=so much as, or up to.

Especially after pu T 'not:' e.g.—

ché-kó yûng-ts'iên pŭ-taú sān pĕ kweī, 'these dollars do not reach to three hundred pieces.'

251. The adverbs of *quality* are generally formed by uniting an adverb of *manner* to an adjective; e.g.—

ché-yáng-haù-jîn 'so good a man.'
yĭ-yáng-haù-jîn 'an equally good man.'
pĕ-pwán 🛱 ∰ 'all kinds of,' lit. 'a hundred classes.'

252. The adverbs of affirmation, of doubt, and of negation are the following:—

Affirmative adverbs.

shí 是 'it is,'=yes; e. g. in 'Is there?'—'Yes.' hí 作 for 'yes,' is peculiar to the Canton dialect; e. g. haí-lǒ 'yes.'

jên the denotes acquiescence; it is especially used in the books.

yiù ithere is,' after appropriate questions; e.g. 'Have you?'-'Yes.'

kwò-jên 具 | 'certainly.' shǐ-tsaí 實 在 'truly.'

 $ts\acute{z}$ -jên 📋 | 'certainly.' $ch\hat{\imath}ng$ -jên $\ddot{\exists}$ \ddot{b} \ddot{b} | 'surely.'

sín 信, kú 固, chíng*, kò 具, shīn 起 are all used in the books, but not in the colloquial style, except in compounds.

The affirmative is also expressed by $p\check{u}$ - $ts\check{o}$ \overrightarrow{A} \overrightarrow{H} lit. 'not mistake,' or $w\hat{u}$ - $ts\check{o}$ $\cancel{\underline{M}}$ 'without mistake.' $ch\check{a}$ $\overrightarrow{\underline{E}}$ often stands for $ts\check{o}$.

253. Adverbs of doubt are such as the following:—

hwŏ-chè 或者 'perhaps.' chè-p'á 只怕 'perhaps.' shū-kì 庶 袋 'perhaps' (B.), and wí-pǐ 未义 (B.). k'ùng-p'á 恐怕 'lest perhaps' (coll.).

254. The negative adverbs are these:-

 $m \check{n} \not \supset \zeta$ 'to be without,'=no or not; opp. to $yi\check{n} \not \subset \zeta$ 'to have,'=yes, there is. $p \check{n} \not \subset \zeta$, 'not,' is the most commonly used negative, and it has no other use. $f \bar{\imath} \not \supset \zeta$ 'not to be,—false,'=it is not; opp. to shi $\not \subset \zeta$ 'to be,'=yes, it is.

wil to have,'=without,=mŭ-yiù 文章, which is also common.

The negative of possession is expressed in Canton dialect by mò 有.

mo 🛱 'not, do not,' is a synonym of pu 🛣 'not.'

 $m \downarrow \downarrow \stackrel{\mathcal{H}}{\coprod}$ (in the Canton dialect)= $m \check{o}$ and $p \check{u}$ of the books.

wa K, wang C, wang 图, wi 壓, wi 勿, fei 匪, wi 未, and fei 否 are used in the books, and some of them in local dialects, but seldom in the Mandarin, except in compounds.

255. The interrogative adverbs correlative to the above classes are:—

kì-shî 芸 日昔 'at what time ?'=when ?

kì-châng-yuén | 長涼 'how long? how far?'

kì-tō-t'iēn | 多天 'how many days?'
kì-tō-niên | | 年 'how many years?'

siēn-kì-niên 先 | 年 'how many years ago?'

shímmô shî-heú 什 廊 時 作 it what time?'=when?

tsă-mó-yáng * 戶 | 精 'how? in what way?'

tsaí-nà-lì 在 那 裡 'where?'

ts'ûng-ná-lì | 'whence?'

taú-ná-lì 到 | 'whither?'

kì-ts'z 美 次 'how many times? how often?'

kì-peī | 'Yay 'how many fold?'

kì-tō | 裳 'how much?' kì-tá | 大 'how great?'

hô-yáng 何 樣 'of what sort?'

siáng-shímmô (\$\frac{1}{2}\) | 'like what?'

shí-pǔ-shí 是 不 是 'is it so or not?'

yiù-mŭ-yiù 有 没有 'have you or not?'

256. yên 焉, hô 何, kú 故久, and several other words are used in the books as interrogative adverbs or particles. They are prefixed generally.

wei-hô 篇 句 'why?' (coll.) or wei-shimmó?

ān or gān 🕏 is interrogative, chiefly in books; ān-tsaí 在 = where?

k'i 💾 at the beginning of a sentence is interrogative, (quomodo.)

The interrogative particles will be found further on (Art. 272), and the forms of the interrogative sentence in the syntax.

^{*} Tsă is also pronounced tsèn, tsèng or tsàng, and formerly it was called tsìm: v. Edkins' Grammar of the Mandarin Dialect, p. 153.

§. 10. The prepositions.

257. The relations expressed by the prepositions are shown in Chinese partly by prepositions properly so called, and partly by the union of these in construction with postpositions. The former are generally verbs; the latter, commonly nouns.

The following are words used as prepositions:-

taú 到 'to reach to,'—to (ad), and up to (usque ad).

tsaí # 'to be in a place,'-in (locative) (in) or on.

ts'ang it to follow,'-from (de or per) or through.

hiáng it 'to go towards,'—towards (versus).

i VI 'to use, to take,'—with (instrumental) (de or ex) (B.).

ki K 'to arrive at,'-with (cum).

liên i 'to connect,'—with, united with (cum).

taí 14 'to act as a deputy,'-instead of (pro).

yù H. 'to give,'-for or to (pro or ad) (B.).

kǐ 育品 'to give,'—for or to (pro or ad).

tà ‡ T'to strike,'—from, but only in colloquial, and especially in the Shanghai dialect, in which it is pronounced tang.

tāng H 'to meet with,'—in, at (cf. Art. 221); it occupies the place of tsaí 'in,' mentioned above.

wei fig 'to do, to become,'-for, on account of (propter).

tuí 类 'to be opposite to,'—towards, opposite to, and for.

t'ang | 'the same, together with, in company with' (cum).

hô 景日 'concord,'—along with.

tsź 🗐 'self,'-from (B.), used with ts'ûng 'from.'

t'i 拱 'for, instead of;' also to or for (ad).

yīn 大 'because of' (propter).

yiû H 'origin,'-from, by (ex and per).

258. The words used to express the relations of place in construction with

the preposition tsai is are treated as nouns, and may be called postpositions. The most common are these:—

nüí 大 (pron. neī occ.) 'interior,' tsaí-fâng-tsż nüí 'within the house.'
waí 力 'exterior,' tsaí-fâng-tsż waí 'outside the house.'

h H 'interior,' is used similarly with tsai for within.

sháng _ 'above,' tsaí-shān-sháng 'upon the mountain.'

hiá T' 'below,' tsaí-mà-hiá 'under the horse.'

chūng i 'middle,' tsaí-ŭ-chūng 'in the middle of the house.'

ts'iên i before' (coram), tsai-mận-ts'iên 'before the door.'

heú 後 'after,' tsaí-ngò-heú 'behind me.'

259. The same words may stand after nouns without tsai being prefixed: e. g.—

ch'îng-nüí 计成 内 'within the city.'

kwŏ-waí 國 夕 'outside the kingdom,'=abroad.

shān-hiá III To 'at the foot of the mountain.'

mà-sháng ﷺ 'upon a horse,'=on horseback.

heú 沒矣, 'after,' is also used as a preposition;—heú-ngò 'after me.'

260. Some explanatory locutions and phrases, such as the following, supply the place of prepositions: e. g.—

mŭ-yiù 資安 有 lit. 'not to have,'=without (sine).

pŭ-yúng 太 用 lit. 'not use,'=without (sine).

рй-tsaí 🔭 fl. lit. 'not present,'=without (postposition).

kwó-k'ú $\stackrel{\square}{\coprod}$ $\stackrel{\square}{\Longrightarrow}$ lit. 'pass over go,'=beyond (extra).

Examples of the above in construction.

mŭ-yiù lǐ-kǐ | 有力氣 'without strength.'

pũ-yúng fận-hiāng 不用焚香 'without incense.'

t'ā-mận pũ-tsaí 仙 作 不 在 'without them' (they being absent).

miaŭ-mận waí-t'eủ 廟 門 夕 頭 'outside the temple-gate.'
Meî-lìng kwó-k'ú 梅 嶺 過 去 'beyond the Mei ling' (Mt.).

§. 11. The conjunctions.

261. Copulative conjunctions are of rare occurrence in Chinese, but disjunctive and adversative conjunctions and those with the hypothetical and illative force are frequently found.

The ordinary copulative conjunctions are:-

k'i K 'with;' hô K 'with;' pîng i or pîng ff 'together with;' yè, the final particle of the books, is used in colloquial style for and, especially in the phrases yè-yiù 'also have' and yè-shî 'also is;' hwân k (occ. haî in coll.) 'still, moreover,' is used in the same sense. yǐ i 'also,' yiú X 'again,' ts'iè ff 'moreover,' and ff ff ar-ts'iè are found in books; so also is liên i 'to connect,'=with, through. kiēn ff, 'together with,' is seldom used in coll. The copulative conjunction is frequently omitted.

262. The disjunctives are such as the following:—

hwŏ-chè 政 者 ... hwŏ-chè, lit. 'perhap ... perhaps,'=either ... or.

 $y^{i} \not \exists \iiint \ldots y^{i}$ are used in the same way for either \ldots or.

pŭ-shí 入是 ... shí, lit. 'not is ... is,'=either ... or.

prǐ-shí prǐ-kwó 不 | 不 調 'not only' (non solum),=fī-tǔ 美 類 (B.).

tán-shí 门 | or hwân-shí 词 | 'but is' or 'also is' (sed etiam),=tsiú-shí.

yǐ-mién — III ... yǐ-mién 'on the one side ... on the other side' (tum...tum).

 $y\check{\imath}$ -shî $\longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}$... $y\check{\imath}$ -shî 'now ... then' (modo ... nunc).

263. The concessive conjunctions are these:-

suī-jên 虽能 然 'although' (etsi).

jên-ậr | ill 'although, yet' (not often in colloquial style).

264. The adversatives are principally,-

tán-shí 旧是'but' or taù-tí 倒底'yet, but.'

pŭ-tán 🖟 | 'not only,' \$\langle r-ts'i\epsilon | \int \text{but also.' (B.)}

tān 單, tán 恒, weî or wî 作 or 採住, and naì 乃 are used in books, both singly and in composition with ar 而 and jên 狀, for but, only, &c. chī 祇 and tí 笄 are used for but, only, in edicts.

265. The conditional or hypothetical conjunctions in common use are,—

jǒ 若, jǒ-shí | 使, and jǒ-shí | 是'if;' hwǒ-chè 或者'if'(si forte);

chě-p'á 只 竹 'suppose, if;' t'àng 竹 'if,' and t'àng-jên | |;

p'i-ju 譬如 'suppose, if,' or pí-ju 比如 (coll.) or kià-ju 假如(B.);

shě-jo 责发 芸 'if;' chîng-jo 誠 | 'if indeed' (sin vero);

shú-kì 🚉 'if perhaps;' keứ 🚻 'if;' and many other words are used in the book-style.

266. The causal conjunctions are,-

yīn 天 and yīn-weí 天 魚 'because' (coll.).

kí A and kí-jên 'since' (B.).

ì 以 and ì-wei 以 為 'on account of' (B.).

yuên 緑, yuen 原, kú 故 and ì-kú 以 故, and kaí 蓋 are common to the literary style.

267. The conclusive or illative conjunctions are,—

sò-ì 所 以 and kú-sò-ì 古文 所 以 'therefore,' and tsiú 荥 'then.'
kú-tsà 古女 많 and yīn-tsà 因 많 are less common.

268. The final conjunctions are these:-

i VI 'in order that, so as to' (ut).

k'ung-p'a H 'lest, so that not' (ne).

269. The temporal conjunctions are expressed by the adverbs and the form of the sentence: e. g.—

Before he came (prius quam), t'ā wi-ts'ang laî, lit. 'he not yet come.'

After he was gone (post quam), I &c., t'ā k'ú-liaù, ngò tsiú, lit. 'he being gone, I then.'

As soon as he came, I &c., t'ā laî, ngò tsiú, lit. 'he comes, I then.'

So long as he reads, I &c., t'ā-tŭ-tǐ-shî-heú, ngò &c., lit. 'while he reads, I &c.'

As often as he eats, he sleeps, t'ā-k'ĭ, tsiú châng-shî shuí, lit. 'he eats, then always sleeps.'

Whilst I am here, ngò ché-lì, i. e. 'I, being here.'

The position of words and clauses affects the nature of their connection very considerably. In the syntax this will be further elucidated.

§. 12. The interjections and other particles.

270. The *interjections*, which are the involuntary expressions of feeling, are rather numerous in Chinese. The following are among the most common:—

aī-yā 口爱 巾】 'ah!' is an expression of joy or surprise (cf. eja in Latin).

tsâng-t'iēn! tsâng-t'iēn 蒼天 'heavens!'

k'ò-lièn 可 惊 or k'ò-sǐ 可 情 'alas! mercy!'

k'ú-pá 去 置 'away! be off!'

kiú-jîn 🗚 人 'help! help!' lit. 'save man.'

wan-haù ## 'very good! beautiful!'

kî-miau 奇 如 'wonderful!'

271. Besides the ordinary interjections of surprise, admiration, &c., there are in the Chinese colloquial style a great number of expressions in imitation of the various sounds heard in nature (onomatopæia), as the falling of water, jingling of crockery, bursts of laughter, &c. &c. Such are,—

aì-aì 哀哀 (Oh! oh!' (to indicate pain.)

hì-hì 壹 克 'Hi! hi!' (to resemble laughter.)

fān-fān jáng-jáng 於 於 印製 印製 印製, to express the noise of business in a market-place.

272. The euphonic and interrogative particles remain to be mentioned. They vary in the different dialects. In the Mandarin the following are the most common:—

lī 中里, mà 口馬, lā 井立, yā 口引, and lö 口各 are final euphonic particles.

mò $\stackrel{\text{\tiny def}}{=}$ is a final interrogative particle. (Mandarin.) Contr. $\stackrel{\text{\tiny def}}{=}$

nī П is a final interrogative particle. (Canton D.)

273. The following particles should also find a place here as they are used in the ordinary colloquial style:—

yuên-laî 原來 lit. 'originally come,'=lo! just then! This is used at the beginning of clauses as an exclamation.

uh I and ŭh-ti is a sign of the vocative case, especially in the Plays of the Yuen dynasty.

pā-pǔ-tǐ 巴 木 常 'would that!' (utinam,)=I hope, I desire; and with a change of tone it applies alternately to the speaker and the person addressed, e. g. 'would that I were &c.!' or 'would that you were &c.!'

nì-taú 作 道 lit. 'you speak,'=speak! tell me! introduces a question.

nan-taú 其能 道 lit. 'difficult to say,' also introduces a question, generally followed by whether, that is, a dependent question.

p'i | h or | h or | a particles used at the beginning of a sentence, are expressive of contempt or irony.

naî-hô! naî-hô 茶 何 | 'what shall we do!'

The remaining particles, more common to the books than to the colloquial idiom, will be found treated of at the end of the syntax.

274. We have now reached the end of the first division of the grammar, in which has been noticed, 1st, the sounds and syllables, the characters which represent the syllables, and the manner of writing the characters; 2ndly, the formation and grouping of the words and syllables, which enables the student to analyse the sentence with greater ease than he can when each character and each syllable is considered as a separate word. The fact that the Chinese generally put two and three syllables together to form a simple notion is enough to show that the term monosyllabic is not applicable to this language.

275. The first object of the student should be to group the words or syllables in the sentence so as to be able to say as nearly as possible to what category each group belongs; the more complete and certain classification of the words cannot be made until their relations to each other in the sentence are viewed in accordance with the rules given in the syntax.

CHAP. II. SYNTAX.

SECT. I. ON SIMPLE CONSTRUCTIONS.

§. 1. Preliminary remarks.

276. By etymology we intended to describe the *forms* of Chinese words, with their true meaning and classification under those forms, in so far as they are distinguishable by the prefixes and suffixes attached to them; by syntax we mean to denote that *arrangement* of the words which expresses the relations existing between them, and the various forms of the sentence by which simple and complex ideas are exhibited.

277. The words of the Chinese language being without inflexion, the external form of the word cannot be introduced as an element to be considered in the construction of sentences. The case of the Chinese is similar to that of the English language in this particular, that the *position* of a word shows to a great extent its grammatical relation to the other words of the sentence. We have to consider then as we proceed to analyse the Chinese sentence; (1) the relative position of the words, (2) the relative position of clauses, and (3) the presence of certain particles, or words used as such.

278. It is assumed that the student is able to recognise in the sentence the particles and other words which help to form nouns, verbs, adverbs, &c. In order to do this he must have an accurate acquaintance with the earlier sections of this work, especially with Arts. 89, 90, 106, 107, 126, 127, and 130, for nouns; and Arts. 192, 194, 197, 211, 212, and 213, for verbs; also the Arts. on the adverbs and prepositions. The student will also do well to refer again to Arts. 35 and 36, on the composition of words, for the same general principles, there noticed, hold good with respect to the syntax of words and sentences.

§. 2. General rules relating to the position of words.

279. The expression of the time when of an action generally stands first in a sentence; e.g.—

kīn-niên kwò-tsà tō 今年 菜子多 'this year there is much fruit.' kīn-t'iēn haù 今天好 'to-day it is fine.'

t'iēn-t'iēn wán-sháng | | 日免 上 'every day at eventide.' [122.]*

hiēn-tsaí kŏ-chú-¢r &c. 現在各處見 'now in every place &c.'[125.]

^{*} The numbers in brackets refer to Mr. Wade's Hsin-tsing-lu, (Peking dialect.)

280. The designation of place follows the expression of time; e.g.—
tsŏ-t'iēn tsaí Pĕ-kīng &c. 作天在比京'yesterday in Peking &c.'

281. The subject of a sentence, when it is expressed, is placed before its verb, though not always immediately before it, for sometimes adverbial expressions come between it and the verb; e.g.—

jĩ wí ch'ữ 📙 🛣 💾 'the sun not yet being out.' Chrest. p. 8. a. 13.

t'ā tsai Kwāng-tāng pǔ haù 他 在 廣東不好'he was not well in Canton.'

jǐ-yǔ tsaí-t'iēn cheū-hîng 日月在天调行'the sun and moon revolve in the sky.' [90.]

282. The subject is often understood from the previous clause, and then it is generally a pronoun of the first person; e.g.—

kiủ nì kĩ ngò tsố chế-kó 求 你 给 我 作 這 個 'I beg you to do this for me:' cf. Dialogues in Mandarin. Chrest. p. 27. a. 17.

283. The adjective precedes its noun always; when it appears to follow it, it should be looked upon rather as the predicate of a sentence, in which the noun that it qualifies is the subject, as in the example above, the literal rendering would be, 'this year the fruit is much:' e. g.—

haù-jîn 好 人 'a good man.' | ché-kó jîn haù 'this man is good.'

284. Words and phrases, which qualify other words and phrases, regularly precede them; thus the attributive genitive is shown by its position before the noun: e. g.—

kwān-fū tǐ chē-tsì 官府的車子 'the mandarin's sedan.' ts'iū-t'iēn tǐ kìng-ḍr 秋天 | 景兒 'the aspect of autumn.' t'iēn liáng tǐ shî-heú | 亮 | 時條 'the time of sunrise.'

285. In accordance with this rule the relative clause, being a qualifying expression, is thrown into the form of an attribute to the noun, which would otherwise be its antecedent: e. g.—

nì chú tǐ tí-fāng 你 住 的 地 方 'the place, in which you live,' lit. 'you dwell's place.'

kiaū lüî p'i ti nà-kô-jîn 时 電 電 用 個人 'that man, who was struck with lightning.'

lüî, lit. 'thunder,' p'i 'to rend by lightning.' kiaū here = pei, v. Art. 213.

286. Adverbs generally precede the words they qualify, but they sometimes follow them; e.g.—

yǐ-sz wû ts'ō — 添 無 错 'without the least mistake.'

chě-tǐ yǐ-kó 只得一个'only one.'

shīn-t'i* p'ó gān 身 體 廣 安 'I am pretty well.'

liēn-liēn tà-kùng 連 連 打 拱 'repeatedly bowing.'

287. The expression of length, height, or duration is placed after the phrase to which it belongs; e.g.—

kaū lǔ ch'ī 吉 大 尺 'six cubits high.'

taú-lú sź-lì 道路四里 'the road is four miles long.'

hiá-yù sān-t'iēn 下 雨 三 天 'it has rained three days.'

§. 3. The construction of simple terms.

288. When two nouns come together, the former of them is in the genitive case, or they are one of the following constructions; viz. (1) an enumeration of two objects, and being understood between them; (2) in apposition to each other; (3) the former is the subject, the latter, the predicate of a sentence; (5) the latter of them is an adverbial expression of time, place, or manner: e.g.—

chūn t'iēn 春天 lit. 'spring's sky,'—'the sky in spring;' cf. Art. 109.

kwān-fù shīng-mîng 官府 磬名'the mandarin's reputation.'

(1) yù, sử 🏗 靠 'rain and snow.'

jǐ, yǚ, sīng-sǔ 目月星宿 'sun, moon, and stars.'

- (2) chù-tsaī 📑 🚖 'lord or master;' cf. Art. 100, &c.
- (3) fǔ haì, sheú shān 前日 文年 壽 山 'his happiness be it a sea, his age, a mountain.'

jîn-shān, jîn haì 人 山 人 資: 'men as many as mountains and seas.'

- (4) kiuèn yé sheù kiā 大 读 寸 家 'the dog by night keeps the house.'
 yé, 'night,' is here an adverb of time.
- 289. A noun before an adjective is either (1) the subject of a sentence of which the adjective is the predicate, or it is (2) construed as an adverb; e. g.—
- (1) sīn chă ('his heart is narrow.'

^{*} shīn-t'i 'body,' cf. the use of corpus for the personal pronoun in Latin.

ch'i-tsận pă-tuí 尺寸不對 'the measurement is not the same.'
yŭ-liáng haù 月亮好 'the moonlight is beautiful.'

(2) ping liding if 'cold as ice;' v. the first example in Art. 297.

fũng kwai, pĩ chĩ 風快, 壁 直 'sharp as a needle, straight as a wall.'

290. A noun after an adjective is qualified by that adjective, or it forms an adverbial expression in composition with the adjective; e.g.—

(1) shíng-jîn 🖳 🙏 'a holy man,—a sage.'

wei-fung ti mién kung 威風的面 \$\sigma\$ 'a dignified countenance.'

- (2) mîng-niên 明年 lit. 'bright year,'=next year.
 gán-tí-tì 暗 地 裏 lit. 'dark place within,'=secretly.
- 291. A noun before a verb is either (1) the subject of that verb, or (2) an adverbial expression of time, place, or manner, formed by the two words; e. g.—
 - (1) K'ùng-tsz shwŏ-taú 孔子 證 道 'Confucius said,'
 p'âng-yiù hwüî-laî 朋友 回來 'my friend is returned.'
 - (2) hiaû-kîng fû-mù 孝 敬文文 · 母 'reverenced his parents with obedience;' pron. also fû-meù.

mà p'aù tǐ kw'aí 馬 跑 的 快 'as quick as a galloping horse.'

- 292. A noun after a verb is either (1) the object of that verb, or (2) an adverbial expression of time, place, or manner, formed by the two words; e. g.—
- (1) lŏ-liaù shīn-fān 若了身分 'lost his position.'
 tà-fă liaù jîn-chaī 打發了人美 'sent a messenger.'
- (2) fáng-sīn shwŏ-pá! 放 意 證 'freely speak!'

liên-yé t'ā k'ŭ 連 夜 他 吳 'all night she cried.'

fáng-sīn is literally, 'release heart;' cf. Chrest. p. 27. a. 13. liên-yé is literally, 'connect night,'='all night,' sometimes, 'day and night;' cf. San-kwŏ-chi, Chrest. p. 17. a. 24, 25.

293. When two adjectives come together they follow the same rule in several particulars as that in Art. 288 with respect to two nouns; viz. (1) the first is an attributive to the second, and qualifies or intensifies it; or (2)

they express simply an enumeration of two qualities; or (3) they are in apposition, and form a compound adjective; or (4) they form an adverbial expression of time, place, manner, or degree: e. g.—

- (1) ch'âng-yuèn 長遠 'long-distant,'=distant.

 ts'īng-ts'ù 清楚 'clear-distinct,'=distinct.
- (2) fāng, yuên 方 圓 'square and round.'
 kaū, tī 盲 愪 'high and low.'
- (3) kān-saū 草艺 火果 'dry.' Cf. Art. 136. ts ūṇg-mîng 耳魚 川月 'intelligent.'
- (4) yīn-yīn yà-ngaí 男 | 月能愛 'most affable and courteous.'
 yīn means 'full, complete.'

tsî tsî u siau 漸 笑 'respectfully and heartily laughing.'

- 294. An adjective before a verb either (1) qualifies it as an adverb; (2) it is used as an abstract noun, and is then the subject to the verb; or (3) they form an adverbial expression: e. g.—
- (1) t'ā kw'ai tseù-liaù 他 快走了'he walked fast.'
 tō yáng sīn sī 多用心思'he thinks much.'
- (2) ǒ pǔ tǐ gān 惡 不 得 安 'the wicked cannot obtain peace.'

 shén yiù shén paú 善 有 幸 報 'virtue has a good reward.'
- (3) ts'ið-ar shau-ti hau-t'ing 雀兒哨得好聽 'the birds sing sweetly,' lit. 'good to hear.'
- 295. An adjective after a verb follows a similar rule; either (1) it is used adverbially, or (2) as an abstract noun, and is then the object of the verb; e. g.—
- (1) t'ā kiàng haù 他 詩 好 'he speaks well.'
 shwŏ mîng 詩 明 'to speak plainly.'
 paì chíng 指記 正 'to arrange properly.'
- (2) tsž pî yiù î 此彼有異 'there is a difference between this and that.'
 hiǒ haù weî shén 學好為 善 'to learn goodness is a good thing.'
- 296. When two verbs come together they are in composition or in contruction either (1) as a compound word, or (2) the second is the natural

complement of the first, or (3) they are used as an adverbial or attributive expression; e.g.—

Examples for (1) and (2) will be found in Arts. 190-198.

(2) ngò pǔ-nâng tseù 我 不能 走 'I am not able to walk.'

tsž jîn k'ò-ì tǔ 此人可以讀 'this man can read it.'

tsiú yaú shí lì 式 要 抗 市豐 'then he was about to go through the rites,' or 'to make the proper greetings.'

- (3) tsî ts'ù siaú hà hà 齊 葉 等 | 'respectfully-heartily laughing.'
 liēn-liēn tù kūng kùng 連 | 打 恭 拱 'repeatedly bowing reverently.'
 - §. 4. The principles involved in the grouping of words.

297. Besides the ordinary formation of the parts of speech by the union of two, and sometimes of three syllables, the Chinese are fond of grouping together syllables, which form a rhythmical expression, and which are attached to each other upon principles often different from the *primary* rules, but which accord with the *less common* rules of composition and construction: e.g.—

tsüì-t'iên sīn-k'ù 阳岩 舌甘心 苦'on the lip sweet, in the heart bitter."

tá-t'ûng siaù-í 大 同 小 典 'in a great degree the same, in a small degree different,'=nearly alike: cf. Arts. 289 (2) and 293 (4).

298. The first important principle of grouping is the appropriate selection of words having an opposite meaning, or which are generally connected in dissyllabic phrases: e.g. t'iēn-ti 大 th 'heaven and earth;' wān-wù 文 it' 'civil and military.' These are separated, and compounded with two other words to form a set phrase or group: e.g.—

t'an-t'ien shwŏ-ti 談天 說地 'to talk about every thing, to gossip.'
tūng taù sī waī 東何西 歪 'to fall in all directions,' lit. 'eastward
and westward.' Hau-k'iu-chuen, p. 12. h. 16.

299. Another leading feature in the grouping of words is repetition. This is extremely common, and has the effect of intensifying the meaning of the single syllable, and gives the notion of a good many, often all, every, to the single noun. It is true, however, that it gives occasionally a meaning somewhat at variance with the original notion conveyed by the word: e. g.—

kàn-kàn kwàn liù 瑟 | 矢久 留 'to detain as a guest with importunity.'
tǐ tsüí-hiūn-hiūn 得 醉 暉 | 'intoxicated completely.'

haù-haù súng ngò 好 | 诶 载 'conduct me properly.' Chrest. p.12. i.23.

jîn-jîn tū shwŏ-人 | 都 記 'every body says.'

chě-chě sāng-píng 隻 | 生 流 'each (animal) is sick:' (cf. Arts. 106. 2.)

shǐ-shǐ k'ò-liên 智 | 可 松 'truly to be pitied.'

300. These repetitions must be construed according to the sense of the passage, sometimes as nouns, sometimes as adverbs, and sometimes as expressions of plurality, and very often as the imitation of natural sounds: e.g.—

yiū wán-wán 🏋 🏋 | 'to roam for pleasure.'

mwán-t'iēn tū shí sīng-sīng 满天都是星 | 'the whole sky is starry.'
siaú hǎ-hǎ tǐ 笑响 | 的 'laughing with a Ha! ha!'

301. Words expressing cognate notions or commonly associated ideas are placed together, and become phrases in groups of two, three, and four characters each. These are virtually nouns or verbs, general terms, or special designations of objects: e. g.—

k'aī-t'iēn p'ǐ-ti 開天 tu lit. 'open heaven, split earth,'=creation. (1997.)
yên, hîng, túng, tsíng, 言行動靜 'words, ways, and deeds,'=conduct.
wù-hû sź-haì 开河四泊 lit. 'the five lakes and the four seas,'=the world.
hiaû-chán wàn-chàn 髯饌 说 蓋 lit. 'the food and cups,'=the feast.
wáng-heú wáng-heú 皇侯皇 | lit. 'to look and wait,'=to visit friends.

§. 5. Uncommon use of certain words in phraseology.

302. The employment of single words in Chinese is very various, and frequently is quite exceptional, and to be explained only by reference to conventional usage; e.g. in

hò-pà 大 九, 'a torch,' we have the noun fire and the verb to hold united to form a conventional term for torch.

k'eù-wí 口 T末 'taste,' from mouth and to taste.

fūng-p'î ‡ ; 'the government confiscation paper posted on the front-door,' from fūng 'to seal,' and p'î 'skin, bark.'

shī-sheù 户 首 'a corpse,' from corpse and head.

pǔ jìn yên kú 不 器 言 去 'cannot bring himself to speak of going,'

lit. 'not suffer to say to go,' where $k'\hat{u}$ 'to go' stands as the object to the verb $y\hat{e}n$ 'to speak, talk of.'

sheu-i 🚉 🛣 lit. 'long-life's garments,' or 'the apparel of old age,'=shroud.

303. Phrases are often affected by ellipsis, and would according to the ordinary rules of composition appear to be absurd, but, when the customs of the people of China are considered, these phrases become intelligible, and frequently display elegance and vigour of expression: e. g.—

paí-sheú 其 讀: lit. 'to bow to, or worship age,—long life,'=to pay compliments on a birthday.

paí-niên 拜年 lit. 'to worship year,'=to pay compliments at the new year.

304. So also many technical and legal terms are formed by an extraordinary use of words, for which the student should be prepared: e.g.—

hó-pạn 15 'goods for a beginning,'=capital, funds.

tung-sī II lit. 'east-west,'=thing, any thing.

yuên-kau 原告 lit. 'origin-accuse,'=plaintiff.

pí-kaú kk | lit. 'one being accused,'=defendant.

305. The student of Chinese must also expect to meet with very many designations formed by the metaphorical use of words. Such are,—

siú-ts'aî 📆 † lit. 'sprouting talent,'=B.A., the first degree in scholarship.

yûn-ngě 雲 智 lit. 'cloud-forehead,'=a headband.

306. In like manner the names for many officers of government are formed by metonomy, using the name of the place, or of the employment: e.g.—

lâng-chūng | it. 'pavilion centre,'=gentleman usher.

t'ûng-chī 问 知 lit. 'with-know,' but chī is here put for

chī-hién 知 点 lit. 'knows the hien (town)' or

chī-fú JJ lit. 'knows the fu (city),' therefore t'ûng-chī means 'an assistant of the chī-hién or chī-fú.' And these are equivalents for 'prefect' or 'mayor.'

307. Many expressions are purely foreign, and, although represented by Chinese characters, those characters are not to be taken in their ordinary sense, but simply as the equivalents for certain foreign sounds: e.g.—

yà-p'ién 鸦片 'opium.'

pō-li 刊文 境 'glass,' acc. to Mr. Edkins, from the Sanskrit sphatika.

The words referred to in this section are to be employed as compounds, excepting in such a case as $ch\bar{\imath}-hi\acute{e}n$, when the $ch\bar{\imath}$ may stand in another compound for $ch\bar{\imath}-hi\acute{e}n$. This habit of eliding a syllable is common in Chinese*.

§. 6. The modifications and relations of the parts of speech.

308. The meanings of words are modified by their connexion with other words. A noun may be the expression for a general notion, or an abstract term; or it may be used to designate an individual only. In the expressions 'man is mortal,' 'what will a man give for his life?' 'the man came again,' the word man stands in different relations; in the first case it means mankind; in the second, any man or every man; and in the third, some particular man. In Europe, grammarians call the words prefixed to the noun, by which the definite and indefinite or general notions are indicated,—articles. These articles are in their nature demonstrative pronouns; and accordingly the Chinese use such pronouns when they desire to circumscribe the notion of the noun: e.g.—

jîn=man, mankind; kô-jîn 'that man,'=the man; yǐ-kô-jîn 'a man.' mà-pǐ 'horses;' ch'uên-chĕ 'ships,' (cf. Art. 116.)

kố-chĕ-mà 'the horse;' nà chĕ ch'uên 'the ship.'

 $n\ddot{u}$ - $j\hat{i}n$ 'woman;' $k\acute{o}$ - $n\ddot{u}$ - $j\hat{i}n$ 'the woman;' $y\breve{i}$ - $k\acute{o}$ - $n\ddot{u}$ - $j\hat{i}n$ 'a woman.'

These are in the colloquial idiom; in the books various words (cf. Arts. 168 and 174) are employed to limit or to render indefinite the substantival notion. For the general term the simple monosyllable is often sufficient in classical composition.

309. It must however be borne in mind that these distinctions in the meaning and use of words are not confined to the noun. Chinese verbs are used in a general sense or with a special application according to the form of the sentence or to the circumstances of their position and the addition of certain particles or adjuncts. If the student will refer to Arts. 189 &c. on the verb, and will compare them with the examples here given, he will obtain a clearer idea of these remarks than by the following examples alone. In Art. 301. yên-hîng-túng-tsíng, 'words, ways, and deeds,' for the whole conduct, illustrates this remark. The words mean literally 'to speak, to act, to move, to rest.' Túng-tsíng especially is an expression for a general term, the scope of which is indicated by the two opposite terms of moving and resting implied by its component parts. In epistolary correspondence, and in the style of the classics, such forms of expression are common: e.g. in the preface to the Shing-yū or 'Sacred Edict' we have

i - chi - $y\bar{u}$ $k\bar{a}ng$ - $s\bar{a}ng$ $ts\check{o}$ - $s\check{\iota}$ $ch\bar{\iota}$ $ki\bar{e}n$

以至於畊桑作息之間

'Even to that which concerns the culture of the land and the mulberry and labour in general.'

^{*} As the examples, which will be given in what follows, will be made up generally of words previously used in this work, the characters belonging to them will not be printed, excepting those not likely to be known by the ordinary student.

310. Verbs formed in the manner described in Art. 200, belong to those used in a general sense, or as abstract terms, and they may stand as the subjects of simple sentences, or as the result or purpose in a compound sentence: e.g. in the expressions $t\bar{u}$ -shū shí $ya\hat{u}$ -kīn-tǐ 'to read is important,' nì k'ò-ì tŭ-shū mô? 'Can you read?' the word read is used in a general sense independent of any special act of reading. Again, in teā laî tŭ-shū, the comes (or came) to read,' the word tu-shū expresses a purpose; and in yung sīn tsiu k'ò-ì tu $sh\bar{u}$, 'take pains and then you will be able to read,' it expresses a result. When such expressions as tu-shu 'to read,' sie-ts' to write,' ki-fan 'to eat rice, k'aī ch'uên 'to sail, hai-jîn 'to injure, shé-tsüí 'to forgive,' are used in construction in the sentence, except in cases such as the above, the nouns compounded with them are dropped or separated from the verbal element. Thus: $t'\bar{a} t\check{u}$ -lia $\hat{u} s\bar{a}n$ - $p\hat{q}n$ - $(sh\bar{u})$ 'he has read three volumes.' But $t\check{u}$ is also a special word for studying books: nì từ-kwó Sź-shū mô? 'Have you read the Four books?' that is, 'Have you studied them thoroughly?' To read simply is, k'an 'to look at.' The uses of such words will be found exemplified in the exercises, which follow the grammar.

311. The union of opposite terms has already been referred to in Arts. 117, 118, and there it was shown that two nouns of opposite signification form a *general* term; and that two adjectives in a similar way form an abstract noun. The same may be said of two verbs which represent two opposite notions; e.g. to labour,—to rest, gives the general or indefinite notion of labouring,—working.

312. The position marks the *nominative* case of the noun. Any word which stands before the verb may be the subject of that verb, unless it be inconsistent with the sense of the passage to construe it as such. In any other case it would be an adverbial expression, or as it were the accusative case placed absolutely, denoting the thing or part affected by the verb: e. g. (cf. Arts. 91, 92, 93, and 198, for the characters; and Hom. Od. a, 274, for acc. abs.)—

k'ĕ-jîn tseù-k'aī, pŭ chūng-i k'ĭ-ch'â

'The guest walked away, he was not pleased to drink tea.'

hw á-kūng wán-kién ch aī-jîn tĭ shwŏ-hwá, tsiú pŭ hwān-hì

'The painter heard the messenger's words, and (then) was displeased.'

ī-fŭ yè táng-wân-liaù 'clothes, even they were pawned.'

313. The genitive case is also shown in most cases by the position of the word before the noun to which it belongs, and very frequently by the presence of the particle ti f between them, or $ch\bar{i}$ if it be in the literary style: e.g.—

t'iě-tsiáng tĩ nữ-4r 'the blacksmith's daughter.' kiả-fũ tĩ kwān-ts \grave{z} 'the courier's cudgel.' mà-fũ tĩ siāng-ts \grave{z} 'the groom's box.' mà-kiả or mà chĩ kiả 'the horse's foot.'

siēn-sāng chī hiūng 'the teacher's brother,' or 'the gentleman's brother.'

314. The dative case is shown by the use of certain verbs which signify to give, to offer. Such are $ki \not\subset A$ and $sing \not\subset A$ and $yi \not\subset A$, the two first being used in the colloquial idiom, the other in the book style*: e.g.—

kĩ nì fán kĩ 'give rice to you to eat.'
kĩ ngò tsở chế-kố 'do this for me.'
sũng yữ t'ā yǐ-kweī yâng-ts'iền 'to present a dollar to him.'
kiàng yữ jîn-jîn 'to speak to every body.'

- 315. Other words, which are commonly used as prepositions, supply the want of case in the noun. Article 257 contains almost all the words which are employed for this purpose. But as they are to be regarded as prepositions or postpositions, we must refer the student to the syntax of that part of speech.
- 316. The accusative case is shown merely by the position of the word after its verb, or between the parts of a separable verb: e.g.—

ngò kiaū-liaù kó jîn laî 'I have called the man here.'
kě-shāng pǔ yaú maí ch'û 'the merchant does not wish to buy tea.'
siēn-sāng ch'š fán liaù 'the teacher has eaten the rice,'—(has dined.)

317. The *vocative* case is distinguished by being cut off from the rest of the sentence, either by the addition of a particle of exclamation, by the repetition of the word or the appropriate pronoun, or by the sense of the passage and the context: e.g.—

Laù-yê-ya! kô-liên ngò, 'O Sir! pity me!'
siaù-ḍr! nì pŭ-yaŭ k'ŭ, 'Boy! weep not!'
Châng-ngô! Châng-ngô! nì, 'O Luna! Luna! you &c.'†
Cf. Mr. Wade's Hsin-tsing-lŭ, Category of T'ién, [5.]

318. The ablative and the locative and instrumental cases will be found fully exemplified under the Articles on the syntax of the prepositions. Two or three examples may here be given:—

From (a place) is expressed by ts'ang, 'to follow,' or tsz; e. g.—
t'ā shi ts'ang Shang-haì laî ti 'he is from Shanghai.'

With (instrumental) is translated by yúng, 'to use,' or ì; e.g.—
ngò yúng niaù-ts'iāng, tà t'ā, 'I struck him with a gun,' i. e. I shot him.

By or through (causal) is expressed by $y\bar{\imath}n$ -wei or wei-tsź 'on account of; — t' \bar{a} tau-k' \dot{u} , $y\bar{\imath}n$ -wei yiu p' \hat{a} , 'he fled through fear,' lit. 'because he had fear.'

319. The modifications of the noun with regard to gender and number are seldom made. When this is done, special words are employed to mark the gender of the noun, and certain adjuncts are used to show the plurality. Some of these words will be found in Arts. 123—128. The following are examples of the use of such words:—

^{*} tt 🛱 and tai 🕂 are used to translate for, (instead of.)

[†] Vide J. G. Bridgman's translation of Premare's Notitia Lingua Sinica, p. 29.

yiù nân-jîn, yiù nù-jîn sháng-hiá sān-pă-kó, 'there were men and there were women, about three hundred.'

nì tỉ chỉ-nữ laî mó? 'Is your niece come?'

kīn-t'iēn tá-liĕ, tà-shă yĭ-chĕ kūng-chū, 'to-day in hunting, (we) killed a boar.'
K'úng-tsż tạng mŭ-yiù liàng-kó, or mŭ-yiù liáng-kó K'úng-tsż, 'there are not two of the Confucius sort.'

320. Examples of the use of the plural particles and adjuncts, given in Arts. 126 and 127, now follow:—

chúng-jîn hwán wi-ki tặ-ying 'before the men had replied;' v. Chrest. Haùk'id, p. 11. b. 10.

chii-wei sien-sang! 'Gentlemen!'

 $sh\ddot{u}$ - $m\hat{i}n$ (B.) = $p\breve{a}$ -sing- $m\hat{q}n$ (coll.) 'the people.'

chū-siēn-sāng kiaī wû ping 'none of the teachers are ill.'

hū-tō jîn pử k'ò-ì tà-hò-ts'iāng 'many men cannot shoot.'

ché-tí-hiūng-mận 'your brothers' (often); v. Hsin-tsing-lũ, Shing-yü. [19.] nì-mận píng-mîn-mận 'you, soldiers and people.' [39.]

chúng-shîn kờ yiù sở kwàn tỉ sź-tsîng 'each of the gods has his own affairs to manage.' [358.]

pă-sing-mận sò paī tĩ kờ-chứ-ậr, pũ t'âng, 'the places where the people worship are various,' lit. 'each place not the same.'

pīng-mîn-jîn tàng 'soldiers and people all.'

321. Further examples to illustrate the plural particles in Arts. 126, 127:—
jîn-kiaī chī tsż 'all men know this.'

kiūn-chīn kiaī kŭ 'the prince and the minister both wept;' v. San-kwŏ, p. 18. d. 12.

kū-kŏ t'úng-k'ŭ 'all and each wept bitterly;' v. San-kwŏ, p. 18. k. 25.

jû-hiën ts'ûng chī 'the scholars all followed him.'

shứ-hwân-ch'ân-shwŏ 'all obstinate detractors;' v. Shu-king, p. 1. i. 23. nũng-fũ kũng-tsiáng tàng 'husbandmen and artisans.'

shî yiù hwán-kwān Tsaû-tsǐ tàng 'at that time there were the eunuchs of Tsau-tsǐ's party;' v. San-kwŏ, Litho. p. 11. g. 13.

 $Tang^a$, $pe\bar{\iota}^b$, lui^c , $ts\hat{\iota}^d$, $tsa\hat{\iota}^e$, and $che\bar{\iota}^f$ are all used after nominal notions to express plurality,—a class or party: e. g.—

ŏ-peī 'the wicked;' ts'iên-peī 'predecessors;' heú-peī 'successors.'

wáng g-î chī peī 'those who forget right principle.'

t'ûng-peī chī jîn 'men of the same class,' i. e. equals.

kwān-tsaû, 'officers, mandarins,' (not commonly used.)

 $f\bar{\imath}^{\text{h}}$ - $lu\hat{\imath}$ or $f\bar{\imath}$ - $t'\hat{\imath}^{\text{i}}$ 'vagabonds;' $w\hat{\imath}$ - $ts\hat{\imath}$, 'we,' belongs to the literary style. $ch\bar{u}$ - $f\hat{\imath}n$ $w\check{\imath}$ - $ki\hat{e}n$ 'the universe of things,'—all things.

yiù-sò-tsź-wǔ k'ū pǔ sheú 有 所 賜 物 俱 不 受 lit. 'the things that were given, all he did not receive,' i. e. he received none of the things that were given.

[&]quot;等 b蜚 °類 '儕 °曹 '儔 "忘 b匪 '徒

Tō , 'many,' sometimes follows the noun to which it belongs: e. g.— Chāng-kwŏ jîn tō ch'ŭ waí-fâng 'many Chinese go abroad.'

322. A few of the ordinary phrases denoting plurality, or the whole group or collection of objects, may here be given. The Chinese in naming certain classes of things have attached a number to the generic term, according as they conceived the genus to be divided into more or fewer species; and these expressions have come to mean the whole class accordingly: e.g. they say—

sān-kwānga 'the three lights,' i. e. sun, moon, and stars.

sān-tsaî b 'the three powers,' i. e. heaven, earth, and man.

 $s\bar{a}n\text{-}kia\acute{a}$ c 'the three religions,' i. e. $j\acute{a}$ d, sh e, $ta\acute{u}$ f, 'Confucius, Buddhist, and Tauist.'

sź-kí g 'the four scasons,' i. e. chūn, hiâ, tś'iú, tūng, 'spring, summer, autumn, and winter.'

wù-hîng 'the five elements,' i. e. $k\bar{\imath}n$, $m\check{\imath}$, $shwu\grave{\imath}$, $h\grave{o}$, $t'\grave{o}$, 'metal, wood, water, fire, and earth.'

wù-lún 'the five relations of life,' i. e. between kiūn and chîn, fú and tsż, fū and fú, hiūng and tí, pâng and yiù, '1. Prince and subject, 2. father and son, 3. husband and wife, 4. elder and younger brothers, and 5. friends.'

wù-k'ŭ 'the five kinds of grain;' wù-tsio 'the five degrees of nobility.'

wù-wî 'the five tastes,' i. e. sour, sweet, bitter, acrid, and salt.

wù-chûng 'the five virtues,'—jîn, í, lì, chí, sín, i. e. benevolence, justice, propriety, prudence, and truth.

lŭ-î 'the six arts,'—lì, yŏ, she, yû, shū, sú, i. e. etiquette, music, archery, driving a carriage, writing, and arithmetic.

tsi-tsîng 'the seven passions or emotions,'—hì, nú, gaī, lŏ, ngaí, wú, yŭ, i. e. joy (external), anger, grief, delight (internal), love, hatred, desire.

 $p\check{a}$ - $kw\bar{a}$ 'the eight diagrams,' the theme of the Yĭ-king.

kiù-t'iēn 'the nine heavens;' and kiù-cheū 'the nine islands,' for the world. wán-tĭ 'all the virtues,' and wán-shī 'all ages.'

They also sometimes express multitude by using adverbially such terms as swarms of insects, vast forests, oceans, seas, mountains, &c.: v. Art. 288. (3.)

323. The modifications of adjectives, in respect of degree, are very various, and are effected by the addition of certain words and particles to the adjective. No alteration however can be made in the adjective to show the distinctions of gender, number, and person. It stands generally before its noun, either immediately, or it is connected with it by the particle ti (1.) (c.) or chi (B.) being placed between them. Some adjectives seem to require these particles, either to avoid ambiguity in the expression, or for the sake of the

rhythm; e.g. shén-jîn 'a virtuous man,' not shén-chī-jîn, but kūng-taú tǐ jîn

'a just man.' The rule given in Art. 132 should be observed, that when a verb enters into the composition of the adjective, the ti or chi is required.

324. Examples of the construction of adjectives *.

ché-lì, tsièn-shwuì, 'here it is shallow water.'

t'ā-tǐ kién-shǐ a, ts'ièn, 'his knowledge is superficial.'

līng-lī-ti jîn or ts'ūng-mîng-ti jîn 'a clever man.'

k'iaù-miaú-tĭ tsiáng-kūng 'a dexterous artisan.'

sŭ-pă-tĭ chī 'snow-white paper.'

pīng-liâng-tĭ shwuì 'icy-cold water.'

tá-tàn-tǐ haû-kǐ b 'a brave hero.'

kūng-taú-tǐ hwâng-tí 'a righteous emperor.'

wận-yà tǐ siēn-sāng 'a scholar of great attainments and polish.'

ché-kó-tsź tsīng-sí-tǐ siè 'these characters are written with elegance.'

k'ò-liên-tĭ jîn-kiā 'a miserable individual.'

k'ò-yúng-tǐ fă-tsĕc 'a method which may be used.'

haù-yúng-tĭ niaù-ts'iāng d 'a useful fowling-piece.'

haù-siaú-tĭ sź-tsîng e 'a laughable affair.'

ché-lì hwān-hì-tǐ tí-fāng 'this is a pleasant place.'

ché-kó siaù-ậr hwŏ-túng-tĩ 'this boy is active.'

t'ā yiù yiù-t'ûng-ts'iên tǐ pâng-yiù 'he has rich friends.'

tsž jîn yiù lǐ-k'í-tĭ 'this man is strong.'

mŭ-yiù liàng-sīn-tĭ 'a man without a conscience.'

shí yiù-haù-í-sź-tĭ 'he is a well-intentioned person.'

ché-kó tūng-sī shí chì tǐ 'this thing is made of paper.'

pŭ shí, shí mŭ-tsŏ-tĭ, 'no, it is made of wood.'

shí jîn-hạn-ti kwān-fú 'he is a hated mandarin.'

tsž sź shí jîn-k'ò-hạn-tĭ 'this affair is hateful.'

pŭ-siāng-kān-tĭ 'it is of no consequence,'—'n'importe.'

kīn-t'iēn t'ā pŭ shwâng-kwaî-tĭ 'to-day he is unwell.'

Chūng-kwŏ, Ying-kwŏ, pŭ-hô-mŭ-tĭ, 'China and England are inimical to each other.'

325. The comparison of the adjective can best be shown by means of examples. For the auxiliary adjuncts the student may refer to Arts. 144, 145, and 148—150.

ché-kó haù-tí, nà-kó kāng-haù-tí, 'this is good, but that is better;' and nà-kó kāng-kiā-haù 'and that is better still.'

ngò tsŏ-t'iēn maí kāng-kiā-paú-peî-tǐ tūng-sī 'I bought a still more precious thing yesterday.'

nì pì t'ā kaū 'you are taller than he is.'

t'ā pu jû-nì kaū 'he is not so tall as you,' or

t'ā mŭ-yiù nì-kaū 'he has not your height.'

^{*} For the words the student may refer to Arts. 133-142, p. 55.

nà-kó haù nī 'this is better!' lit. 'this is good!' We must suppose some one making a selection, and taking up one article, which he conceives to be superior to the rest.

pử haù tỉ tō, haù tỉ shaù, lit. 'the not good are many, the good, few,' which is equivalent to 'there are more bad ones than good ones.'

326. The expression of the comparative degree is further effected by means of the words $yi\hat{u}$ 'again, more,' and $tsa\hat{i}$ 'again,' hwan 'still, besides,' $y\ddot{u}$ 'to pass over,' $y\ddot{u}$ 'to exceed,' and some others of a similar meaning: cf. Art. 148.

Examples.

 $y\ddot{u}$ - $tsa\dot{u}$ - $y\ddot{u}$ - $ha\dot{u}$ 'the earlier the better;' $y\ddot{u}$ is used in the same way, but not often in speaking.

hô k'aī-liaù k'eù-tsz, hiá-yù yiú tō, 'when the river had overflowed its banks, the rain fell still more.'

mŭ-yiù tsaí sí-ti 'there is no finer.'

pử nâng pì ché-kó sí-tỉ 'you cannot get finer than this.'

yaû-ch'uên hwân yaú kw'aí 'row faster.'

ngò k'ān t'ā pì pǐ-jîn tū chúng 'I look upon him as certainly more honest than other men;' chúng='heavy,'—'well-principled.'

fŭ tá liáng tá 'the greater his fortune, the greater his bounty.'

ngě waí kiā siū 客戶 小 加 修 'give a higher salary,' lit. 'allowance beyond add recompense.' Hsin-tsing-lǔ, Part III. 22.

kāng k'i chùng-liaù 更氣腫了'the more inflamed it swells.' Hsin-tsing-lü, P. III. 29. The chùng-liaù in this place is like the impersonal in Latin.

Most of these sentences might be otherwise translated in respect of form, but no difference in meaning would arise therefrom.

327. The form for the limitation of the quality of the adjective is the following. Various words may be used for rather.

maì kweī yǐ siē 'bought it rather dear.'
tà-liáng tièn ậr 'a little more generous.'
nā yǐ-kô twàn yǐ ch'ǐ 'that one is shorter by a foot.'

328. The word in Chinese forms of comparison which seems to take the place of than in English is $y\bar{u} \not \uparrow \dot{\chi}$: e. g.—

tsiù haù yū shwuì 'wine is better than water,' or

tsiù pì shwuì kāng haù would express the same, although it is not so exact as the former, for in it the goodness of both is implied, which might not be true of some other articles under comparison.

shīn yū haì 'deeper than the sea' (B.).

jîn feû yū sź 'men more than work for them' (B.); feû 'to float,'-'to exceed.'

 $y\bar{u}$ has the sense of 'with respect to,' and so 'in comparison with;' v. Arts. on the particles, and the examples in the exercises.

329. In Arts. 146 and 151—154 the student will find the forms of the superlative degree, and it remains only to give here a few examples of their usage. The various degrees of the superlative are shown by the same words, which must be translated by most, very, too, according to the sense required by the context: e.g.—

t'ā tǐ hîng-wei tìng-pŭ-haù 'his actions are very bad.'

haù k'î-kw'aí yè () 'very wonderful' (B.).

haù pũ k'ù yè 'very much afflicted;' this expression, in which pǔ , 'not,' intensifies, is equivalent to shǐ-fān k'ù tǐ; and mǔ) , 'to be without,' is sometimes substituted for pǔ in such phrases. The adjective with the negative before it must be looked upon as one word, and the negative particle then stands as a privative particle; e. g. haù mǔ-liàng-sīn is 'very wanting in conscience,' not 'well may he have no conscience,' as translated after Premare by Bridgman*. The other examples given by Premare prove this view to be correct,—for wû III, 'without,' is used occasionally in the same sense: thus—

nì haù mŭ-taú-lì 'you are very unreasonable.'

haù wû-pāa-pib 'entirely without method,' or 'very unmethodical.'

k'î ts'ūng-mîng shīn pǔ shíng c 'his intelligence is quite unsurpassable.'

ti-mŭ t'ai ch'ŭ yûng-i 'the theme turns out to be a very easy onc.' The ch'ŭ here belongs to the yûng-i; ti-mŭ is the subject, the remainder the predicate of the sentence.

330. It may be observed that the particles which form the superlative are very frequently suffixed instead of being prefixed,—and this is especially the case in the books, and in the higher colloquial style; e.g.—

meì shī shīn kī 'a very beautiful countenance.' (1700, 1071.)

k'ò-gaí shīn ì (矣) 'very amiable.'

331. Examples of the superlative with t'ai \rightarrow , t'è \rightarrow , and kwó \rightarrow are the following:—

pă yaú t'aí k'iēn d' do not be too modest.'

ché kí t'aí hiền e 'this plan is too dangerous.'

hiá sheù t'ĕ hàn-liaù 'it is struck too much,' this is the impersonal form, but it is equivalent to 'you struck me too hard.'

t'ě tsîng-sî liaù 'it is too delicate.'

nì yè t'ĕ tō sīn 'you are a person of too much heart.'

tsiù t'ĕ k'ĭ ki liaù 'the wine—it was drunk too quickly.' (1068, 1074.)

wận-lì pử shīn t'úng-t'eú f 'in learning not very profound.'

síng-ts'îng kwó ngaú 'he is too proud;' síng-ts'îng='temper, mind.'

"把 身 "胇 '胇 '險 '通 透

^{*} Vide Bridgman's translation of Premare's Notitia Linguæ Sinicæ, p. 83.

332. The following expressions illustrate the use of kǐ 木板, tsǔ 純, tsǔ 宗, and hàn 根:-

ché-kó shí k'ò-siaù-kĭ-liaù 'this is most laughable.'

kĭ-tá yĭ-tsó-miaú 'a very large temple.'

kǐ-k'iaù-tǐ hwā-kūng 'a most clever painter.'

kĭ-mŭ-k'iaú a-tĭ hwá 'most unintelligible language.' k'iaú (1129).

tsŭ wû kī-hwuí b, lit. 'entirely without opportunity.' Mr. Bridgman has rendered it 'exceedingly unfortunate.'

tsüí-kaū sheù-twān c 'very skilful.' kaū 'high.'

miaú pŭ-k'ò-yên 'wonderful, unspeakably.'

 $h \dot{q} n - s h \bar{i} n - t \bar{i} t s i n g$ 'a very deep well.'

tsű-miaú, tsű-miaú, 'very good! very good!'

shí kó tsű-miaú-tǐ fă-tsż 'it is a most admirable plan;' v. Shing-yü, p.7. h.24, &c.

333. The phrases $sh\check{\imath}$ - $f\bar{a}n$ and $t\acute{\imath}$ - $y\check{\imath}$, $p\check{u}$ - $sh\acute{\imath}ng$, $p\check{u}$ - $kw\delta$, and $lia\grave{u}$ - $p\check{u}$ - $t\check{\imath}$ (v. Arts. 151 and 153) should be remembered as adjuncts to form the superlative notion: e. g.-

sāng-tĭ shĭ-fān ts'īng-siú d 'born very well-favoured.'

pŭ tá-shǐ-fān-haù 'not very very good.'

tí-yǐ miaú 'very wonderful:' cf. Americanism first-rate.

* shǐ-ár-fān jîn ts'aî e 'very beautiful in countenance;' so wù-fān haù means 'five parts good,'-- 'pretty good,' and

kì-fān haù 'several parts good,'--'in some degree good.'

pŭ-shing hì-hwān, lit. 'not conquer joy,'--- 'extremely glad;' or

hì pŭ-tsź-shíng, lit. 'joyful not conquer himself,' like ἔκστασις.

hì-hwān liaù-pŭ-tĭ 'most joyful,' lit. 'cannot end his joy.'

hwān-hì wû-sò-pŭ-kǐf, lit. 'joy—interminable.'

tsüí k'ù pŭ-kwó 'most miserable beyond compare.'

kūng-taú pŭ-kwó-tĭ 'surpassing just.'

kw'ai-sŭ g mŏ h kwó yū tsż 'insurpassably swift.' (B.)

cheū-ŏ shīn-pŭ-shíng 'desperately wicked.'

ts'ân-niǒ wû yû yū tsà 殘 虐 無 懾 于 此 'incomparably cruel.' (B.)

334. There are other phrases and words used for the purpose of intensifying the attribute, but these will be found under the section on the particles and in other parts of this work. The following however must come in here (cf. Arts. 152 and 153 for the characters used):-

hiūng tǐ lí-haí 'most cruel;' (tǐ 'to obtain,' or tǐ the gen. pa.) nì yè shă laù-shǐ liaù 'you are too honest;' (ye 'also,' the fin. pa.) t'ān tsiù kwó-tō 'he is too fond of wine.'

^{*} shǐ-fān meaning 'ten parts,' which is like saying the whole of any thing. shǐ-ár-fān would mean 'twelve parts,' and be a stronger intensifier than $sh\bar{\imath}_{\bar{i}}f\bar{a}n$.

ch'aū-kiūn 詔 耋 lit. 'to surpass the common herd.'

cho-li it. 'to establish as pre-eminent.'

chŏ-tsŭ | 新 lit. 'to surpass exceedingly.'

chŏ-yŭ | tit. 'surpassing excellent.'

chǔ-lüí 且 對 lit. 'to stand out from his class.'

saí-kwó 害 過 lit. 'to excel and overpass.'

sai-shing | 片 lit. 'to excel and conquer.'

tsui-kweī 里 姐 lit. 'sin's chief,'—'chief of sinners.'

ŏ-kweī 111 | lit. 'wicked head,'—'the most wicked.'

kaí-shí 🏥 👑 lit. 'cover age,'—'the most eminent of his age.'

These expressions do not occur in common conversation, but are used with elegance in literary composition.

335. The measure of a thing, as regards number, is denoted by the numeral being placed before the noun, with the proper appositive between them, or by placing the numeral and the appositive after the noun, thus $s\bar{a}n-p\check{\imath}-m\dot{\alpha}$ or $m\dot{\alpha}$ $s\bar{a}n-p\check{\imath}$ is 'three horses,' $s\dot{z}$ -che-ch'uên or ch'uên- $s\dot{z}$ -che' 'four ships,' $y\check{\imath}$ -kién kù-kwai t' $s\dot{z}$ -tsîng' a strange affair;' and when it refers to quantity it is expressed by the numeral and some special word denoting the measure of quantity, and these are placed after the noun to which they apply (cf. 287): e. g.—

sān-sź-kô-jîn yìn-liaù sān-wù-peī-tsiù 'three or four men drank from three to five cups of wine.'

ngò yaú maì ī-châng sān-t'aú 'I wish to buy three suits of clothes.' tiú-pǐ a sān-niên, yǐ-tān t'âng-lĩ b, 'separated for three years, on a sudden we are united.' (Prov. and Epistolary.)

336. The following examples will show how numbers are constituted and modified:—

sān-sź-kó 'three or four;' shǐ sź-wù kó 'fourteen or fifteen;' wù-lǔ-shǐ kó 'fifty or sixty;' lǔ tsǐ ts'iēn 'six or seven thousand;' tsǐ pă mán 'seventy or eighty thousand.'

337. It should be noted that a *point* of time is placed first generally, but not before the subject of the sentence, and especially if this be a pronoun; and that duration of time is placed after the expression to which it belongs: e.g.—

ngò tsŏ-t'iēn tŭ-shü liaù 'I read yesterday.'

t'ā tŭ-shū sān-t'iēn 'he has read for three days.'

nì ts'iên-jĩ pử laî 'you did not come the day before yesterday.'
ts'iên-sān-t'iēn t'ā pử-shí chê-yáng 'three days ago he was not so.'
ts'iên-sān-t'iēn t'ā pử k'ĩ-fán 'three days ago he would not eat.'
t'ā pử k'ĩ-fán yiù sź-t'iēn 'he has not eaten any thing for four days.'
ts'iên-sān-t'iēn t'ā sź-liaù 'he died three days ago.'
t'ā sź-liaù sān-t'iēn 'he has been dead three days.'

338. The measures of length or breadth, weight or quantity of any kind are put after the verb:—

kó-tsĕ p'aù-ch'ŭ shǐ lī liaù 'the robber ran ten li*.' (2826, 1919.) ché yĭ-tiaú-hô k'wān-tǐ yĭ-lī-lú 'this river is one li wide.' nì laî-tĭ-ch'î yĭ-tièn-chūng 'you came late by an hour.' ché-yĭ-tsó-t'ă kaū-tǐ shǐ cháng 'this pagoda is ten cháng* high.' (2529.)

339. Many measures of time, space, weight, &c., are used as appositives, and then stand in the place of the appositive, between the numeral and the noun: e.g.—

lử tsĩ meủ t'iên 'a six or seven acre field.' (1710.)
yĩ tần mî 'a pecul of rice.' (2559.)
wù t'iēn shî-heű 'a period of five days.' (584.)
t'ā k'ĩ-liaù sān-wân-fán 'he has eaten three bowls of rice.' (151.)
See Appendix for the tables of times, weights, and measures.

340. The syntax of proper names and their relative positions may here be noticed, and the student may refer to Art. 121 for the same subject.

The name of an individual consists of his sing, the name of his family (gens), which is commonly but one syllable, and is placed first; and then follows his ming (cognomen), which is generally dissyllabic: e.g. in

T'ang Hiò-hiun, T'ang is the name for the whole gens, and Hiò-hiun, the name (cognomen) for the individual of that gens.

Sometimes in books the word shi f, 'family,' is added after the sing, but only when the ming is omitted. In asking a person's name we should always enquire what his sing is, and then address him by that name with the appropriate addition of sien-sang or siang-kang, &c.: e.g.—

Siēn-sāng, kaū síng á? 'Sir, your eminent name?' siaù síng Li 'my insignificant name is Lee.'
Li siēn-sāng k'ò haù má? 'How do you do Mr. Lee?'

No distinction is made by the Chinese between the name of the clan (gens) and the name of the family (familia), but the name of the whole gens is attributed to each individual. It will be seen that the Chinese and the Roman order of announcing the names is similar; first the nomen, then the cognomen; first the sing, then the ming. In his writings the author uses his ming by way of humility, but in addressing any one worthy of respect the sing is invariably used. The tsi is taken by every youth of education

^{*} A $li=1897\frac{1}{2}$ feet English, or $27\frac{4}{5}$ li=10 miles English; and a cháng = 10 ch'ĕ, or 141 inches English.

on attaining his majority. In writing this follows the other two names. In addition to these there is a name given to honour the dead, this is called the hww in the dead, this is called the hww in the compact ('to respect'); and if it be in honour of a great man, or of an emperor, the expression is miaw-haw in the imple designation,' because the memorials of such persons are preserved in the temple of ancestors, like the images of the Roman ancestors in the atrium*.

- 341. All the titles of honour and of office precede the sing, which is used alone in such cases: e. g. Kīn-ch'aī, Tá-chīn, Pīng-pú Sháng-shū, Liàng-Hû Tsùng-tǔ, Līn, i. e. lit. 'Imperial Commissioner, Minister of State, a President of the Board of War, and Governor of the Two-Hu ('lake') Provinces,—Lin:' (cf. the notes upon the Chinese text in page 23 of the Chrestomathy.) This rule does not however hold good with respect to the terms siēn-sāng 'teacher,' siāng-kūng 'Sir,' and such expressions of civility; these invariably follow the sing.
- 342. The names of places in China are all significant, although, as with European local names, the meaning is seldom thought of: e. g. Kiāng-sī 'the river's west,' Hû-nûn 'the lake's south,' are names of provinces. But the names of foreign places and persons are given in a changed form, according as the Chinese are able to pronounce them †: e. g. Ying-kā-li for 'England;' Fā-lan-si for 'France;' Ngo-lo-sz for 'Russia;' Lan-tạn for 'London.' 'Alexander' would be A-lā-shan-ta-ar in Chinese; 'Elgin,' E-ar-kin. But foreigners in China generally choose a Chinese family name (sing), which is like the first open syllable of their own surname, and they adopt this for their surname: e.g. 'Mr. Hobson' might use Ho; 'Mr. Cave,' Ka or Kai; 'Mr. Brown,' Lau or Lo.
- 343. The names of cities and towns are simply the names of the provinces or districts of which they are the chief places: e. g. $Sh\hat{u}n$ -t' $i\bar{e}n$ - $f\hat{u}$, i. e. 'chief place of the department of $Sh\hat{u}n$ -t' $i\bar{e}n$ is Peking.' The word $P\bar{e}$ - $k\bar{i}ng$ means the 'northern capital,' just as $N\hat{u}n$ - $k\bar{i}ng$ means the 'southern capital.' $Kw\hat{u}ng$ - $che\bar{u}$ - $f\hat{u}$, i. e. 'chief place of the department of $Kw\hat{u}ng$ - $che\bar{u}$ is Canton,' a word which is a corruption of $Kw\hat{u}ng$ - $t\bar{u}ng$, written by the Portuguese in former times Can-ton.
- 344. The names of countries, islands, rivers, mountains, are followed by the words $kw\check{o}$ a 'kingdom;' t 'aù b or $che\bar{u}$ c or $s\bar{u}$ d 'island;' $ki\bar{u}ng$ c or $h\hat{o}$ f 'river;' $sh\bar{u}ng$ or ling h 'mountain or peak:' e.g. $J\check{i}$ -pạn $kw\check{o}$ 'Japan;' $Y\check{i}ng$ - $k\check{w}$ -li- $kw\check{o}$ or Ying- $kw\check{o}$ or $T\check{a}$ -ying- $kw\check{o}$ 'England,' put for 'Great

^{*} M. Bazin says, in his Grammaire Mandarine, p. 2, that there are two thousand three hundred different family names given in the "Universal Biography." This is a large Chinese work called the Shi-sing-p'u, i. e. 'Records of families,' a copy of which is preserved in the Royal Asiatic Society's Library.

⁺ This is similar to the French pronunciation of foreign words: e.g. Grenvish for Greenwich.

[&]quot;國 b島 cì州 d嶼 c江 f河 "山 b 嶺

Britain; 'Kiau-i-cheū commonly called 'Green Island' (near Hongkong); Tàng-lûng-cheū, i. e. 'Kellet's Island; 'Chŭ-sū 'Bamboo Island;' Hĕ-shān 'Black mountain;' Meî-ling 'Plum-peak or ridge' (to the north of Canton).

345. The construction of *pronouns* now claims our attention. In their isolated state, without the addition of any grammatical particle, their position alone will show the case to which they belong: e. g. in $t^{\epsilon}\bar{a}$ $t^{\epsilon}\hat{a}ng-n\hat{i}$ $ya\hat{a}$ $k^{\epsilon}\hat{u}$, 'he wants to go with you,' the pronoun $t^{\epsilon}\bar{a}$ must be in the nominative case, and the pronoun $n\hat{i}$ in the accusative after $t^{\epsilon}\hat{u}ng$:

t'ā pŭ hwān-hì nì 'he does not like you:' t'ā is nom.; nì, acc.

346. The personal pronoun is frequently omitted in Chinese: when it is expressed its position shows the case in which it must be construed; if before the verb, it will almost always be in the nominative case; if after the verb, in the accusative. The words used for the pronoun of the first person vary according to the style of the composition in which they occur. Some of these distinctions will be seen by referring to Arts. 164, 165, and 179, where the characters will be found.

ngò yaú nì t'ûng-ngò k'ú 'I want you to go with me.' pǔ yaú t'ûng-nì k'ú 'I will not go with you.'

nì tà ngò, pǔ-haù 'you strike me and do wrong,' or 'in striking me, you do wrong.'

In the books the student may expect to find the pronoun occasionally placed before the verb as the object of the verb, not the subject; e.g. in the Lun-yu of Confucius—

pǔ ngù chī 不 吾 知 lit. 'not me know,' 'when I am unrecognised.'

ngò shuî k'ī 我 黃隹 欺 lit. 'I whom insult,' 'whomsoever I insult.'

347. The nature of the expression enables the Chinese sometimes to dispense with the pronoun; e.g.—

 $ka\bar{u}$ sing á ? 'Your great name Sir ?'

kiù wặn taĩ-hiūng 'I have long heard of you Sir.'

kǐ sź yǐ-hwiií 'I have ardently desired a meeting with you;' v. Haú-kiú-chuên (1), p. 8. h. 20 and 28.

348. The designation of the person is frequently used for the personal pronoun:—

Li siēn-sāng k'ò haù má? 'Are you well, Mr. Lee?' (v. Art. 340.) chù-kūng tsiè sü pí chī 'My lord you should avoid him;' v. Sān-kwŏ-chí (4),

p. 20. d. 13.

k'àn-k'iû tá-yê chế kô gặn-tiền 'I beg of your excellency to grant me this favour;' v. Dialogues &c. (1), p. 27. b. 1.

 $waî-sh\bar{a}ng \ f\acute{u} \ t`a\acute{i} - j\^{i}n \ ta\bar{\imath} \ tsi\^{e}n, \ f\~{u} \ - ki \ chui - k\acute{u} \ p\`{q}n-sh\bar{a}ng$

外商赴太人臺前伏而垂顧本商

'I, the foreign merchant, hasten to your excellency's tribunal, and humbly beg you to bestow a glance on me, a merchant.'

- siaù-tí tsŏ-jĭ tsîn-yĕ 'I (lit. 'younger brother') yesterday proceeded to wait upon you;' v. Haû-k'iû-chuên (1), p. 8. d. 13.
- 349. As the Chinese have no possessive pronoun in form, they use constantly the personal pronouns with the particle ti f attached to them, and this is equivalent to the genitive case, which answers the purpose for which the possessive pronoun is commonly used: e. g. ni-ti fu-mu 'your parents;' t' \bar{a} -ti $hi\bar{u}ng$ -ti 'his brother;' $ng\bar{o}$ -ti fung-u 'my house.'
- 350. In questions and commands or invitations the pronouns are frequently omitted: e. g.— $\,$

tsìng-tsố 'pray be seated;' yaú shímmô? 'what do you want?' yaú chĩ fán 'I want my dinner;' pữ pĩ tō-lì 'do not be extreme in etiquette.' yaú ngờ tsố shímmô? 'what do you wish me to do?'

351. The reflexive pronoun ts2-ki regularly follows the personal pronouns, but it is often used alone when the other pronoun is understood: e.g.—

ngò tsź-kì pŭ-k'āng k'ű 'I for my part will not go.' nì tsź-kì shwŏ-taú-liaù chê-kó 'you said that yourself.' t'ā tsź-kì pŭ hwān-hí 'he himself is not pleased.'

But other words are used for the reflexive pronoun, such as shīn 'body,' &c.

352. The demonstrative pronouns follow the same rules as the personal pronouns, but the syntax of the *relative* pronoun, or rather of the demonstrative used for the relative, will require further elucidation: e.g.—

nà tà ngò tĩ 'the man who struck me.' ngò sò shườ tĩ 'what I said.'

n sò từ tǐ shū 'the book, which you are reading.'

yiù pử ts'ûng chè, chàn-chī, 'if there are any who will not follow, cut them down;' v. Sān-kwŏ-chī (3), p. 19. b. 15.

shán-ngò chè, sāng; yǐ ngò chè, sź, 'those who obey me, shall live; those who oppose me, shall die;' v. Sān-kwŏ-chí (3), p. 19. i. 11.

gań-fú-mù-chè 'those who love their parents;' v. the Arts. on the particles chè 者 and sò 所.

- 353. Sometimes there is no sign for the relative, but the context shows that the words must be construed with a relative pronoun in English: e.g.—

 tsō-sháng yǐ-jîn t'uí-gān 'one man, of those who were sitting, pushed the table;' v. Sān-kwŏ-chí (3), p. 19. g. 7.
- 354. The use of the shuî, 'who,' and shimmô, 'what,' for any body and any thing may here be exemplified: thus, a master speaking to his servant might say, laî ti shi shuî? 'who is that come?' the servant might reply, mu yiù shuî laî 'there is not any one come.' Nì yaû shimmô, ngò tsiú tsó shimmô, 'If you want any thing, then I will do it (any thing);' v. Mandarin Phrases, p. 27. d. 6.

355. The characters in Art. 174 are further illustrated by the following examples:—

meù-jîn kaú-sū-liaù ngò 'a certain man told me.' Chrest. p. 28. a. 20.

nì yiù kì-tō yìn-tsiên? 'how much money have you?'

ngò mữ yiù shímmô 'I have not any.'

ché-kì-t'iēn hiá-yù-liaù 'it has rained for some days.'

līng jĩ tsaí î 'another day again consult;' v. Sān-kwŏ-chí (4), p. 20. b. 18. pũ yaú haí pĭ-jîn 'do not injure others.'

nì k'ò-ì pĭ-yáng tsó 'you may do it another way.'

pǐ-yáng mữ yiù 'there is no other kind.'

sú-pějîn mà 'several hundred men and horses;' v. $S\bar{a}n-kw\check{o}-chi$ (2), p. 18. d. 4. $me\bar{i}-ji$ $k\acute{o}$ $t\check{u}$ 'you may read every day.'

mŭ-yiù yĭ-siē 'I have not even a little (or a few).'

kŏ-jîn yiù yîn-ts'iên tō 'each man has much money.'

356. The forms for *whoever*, &c., given in Art. 175, need further exemplification. A few examples of their uses may be given here, and an exercise upon them will be found in the third part of this work.

nì suî-pién shwŏ 'say whatever you like.'

pŭ-kwan shimmo jîn kiang 'whoever speaks.'

pũ-k'ū hô jîn shwŏ tsż 'no matter who says this.'

pŭ-k'ū tō-shaù yìn-ts'iên 'whatever quantity of money,' or 'no matter how much money.'

jîn pŭ-k'ū taú nà-lì 'wherever a man goes,'

tū yaú kiàng lì-sîng 'he ought to speak common sense.'

Some of the forms used in the books are occasionally employed in the higher colloquial style.

pŭ-lán hô shî 不 論 何 時 'whenever.'

meī yĭ nién 街: — 念 'whenever I think.'

ngò meī-tsź taú t'ā nà-lì k'ü, kǐ ngò sūng-lì 'every time I go to his place, he gives me presents.'

suî yú, chẽ ch'au 下海 遇 軋 抄 'whenever I met with any, I at once copied them.'

357. The expressions tá-fân and fân alone, tá-kaí, yĭ-tsùng for the whole, often convey the sense of whoever, whatever, &c., especially when followed by sò (cf. Art. 176): e. g.—

tá-fûn sò shwŏ tĭ 'whatever is said.'

fân yiù t'iēn-hiá chī kwŏ 'every country of the world,' or, if in a dependent sentence, 'whatever country of the world.'

yĭ-tsùng tǐ tsüí tū kweī yū kaū-gaú 'all sin is reducible to pride,' i. e. 'whatever sin, or every sin which is committed:' cf. π âs, for any one.

358. It has already been remarked that the designation of the person is put for the personal pronoun (v. Art. 348). The use of the title and the various substitutes for the pronouns may now be exemplified. The characters are given in Arts. 179—185.

Examples.

siaù-tí tsŏ-ji tsín yĕ 'I yesterday proceeded to wait upon you;' v. Haú-k'iù-chuên (1), p. 8. d. 13.

siaù-tí yǐ pǔ-jìn yên-k'ú 'I cannot bring myself to speak of going;' v. Haú-k'iû-chuên (1), p. 9. a. 26.

ché shí mîng-k'î siaù tí 'this is plainly to insult me;' v. Haú-k'iû-chuên (1), p. 10. 0. 11.

yū́-tī meū-meū-tsź tạn 'your humble servant so-and-so bows;' v. Epistolary style, p. 32. o. 19.

pàn tāng ling kiaú 'I ought to receive your commands;' v. Haú-k'iû-chuên (1), p. 8. k. 6.

chīn siēn-chaū sz̄-tû....'I (lit.' your subject') am the Minister of Instruction of the late dynasty's....; v. $S\bar{a}n$ - $kw\check{o}$ -chī (1), p. 27. l. 18.

síng-shīn mîng-shuî, lit. 'surname what, name who?'

sháng-síng kaū mîng, lit. 'superior surname, exalted name?'

kaū-mîng yâ-haú, lit. 'exalted name, elegant designation?'

These expressions are all equivalent to, 'Will you favour me with your name?' *

wî sĩa kweī-pùb, lit. 'not yet acquainted with your honourable position.'

This is used by classmen when unknown to each other. Pu, lit. 'a place for planting trees' (2084), is elegantly used for place or position in the list of prizemen, for which fu^c , 'eminent,' is used; e.g.—

t'aī-fù hô mîng='Pray what is your name Sir!'

The following is employed by ordinary scholars or passmen:

wi wán tsān-haú, lit. 'not yet heard of your honourable designation.'

And this by merchants and others for 'I have not the pleasure of knowing you:'

wí-chī tsŭ-hiá, lit. 'not yet know you Sir.'

^{*} See Bridgman's translation of Premare's Notitia Linguæ Sinicæ, p. 143.







ts'iên mûng-jữ lín pí-yĩ shî 'when on a former occasion you condescended to come to my poor place;' v. Haú-k'iử-chuến (1), p. 8. i. 2.

kweī-kwŏ suî tsai chûng-yâng àr wán lī wai 'although your honourable kingdom is in the great ocean above two myriads of miles away;' v. Official papers, Lin's letter, p. 23. d. 11.

yiù kì wei ling-lâng 'there are how many of your sons?' v. Dialogues &c. (2), p. 28. j. 10.

359. Many other designations of persons are used for the personal pronouns. The signification and use of each will be indicated in the Dictionary. (Part IV.) Some are more commonly used than others; each province and place has its own peculiar words of this kind; and the language of etiquette, the rank of the persons speaking, and various other conditions determine the particular epithet to be employed. The following dialogue may exemplify this:

- Q. Ling-tsan haù-mô? 'Is your respected father well?'
- A. Kiā-fú haù, lit. 'the paterfamilias is well;' v. Dialogues, Chrest. p. 30. l. 5.
- Q. Yiù kì-wei kweī-nǜ? 'How many young ladies (for daughters) have you?'
- A. Yiù sān-kô kū-niâng 'I have three girls' (for daughters); v. Dialogues, Chrest. p. 28. j. 15.

The following may be noticed here as they were omitted above:

hân-kīng 美 莉, lit. 'cold-thorn,' is used for my wife: (cf. Chr. 9. j. 19.)

siaù-kiuèn 🍌 🏃, lit. 'little dog,' for my son.

siaù-t'a 小 常, lit. 'small scholar,' for I, your pupil.

ts'aù-ts'z 堂, lit. 'grass title,' for my name.

jîn-hiūng 仁 兄, lit. 'benevolent elder brother,' for you, Sir.

laù-shīn 老 身, lit. 'old body,' for I, used by old-women in the novels.

360. In treating of the modifications which the verb undergoes, we may begin by considering those simple verbs which stand between the subject and predicate of a sentence to express that the subject is, has, becomes, makes, exists in or happens to be something. They are commonly called substantive verbs, because they express the reality or the assumed reality of the predication. But this reality may exist under various conditions or modes of existence, for example: 'Victoria is (by nature) a woman, she has a crown, she becomes a queen, she makes a good queen, she exists in her palace, and she is (but not by nature) an accomplished lady.' Some languages express more definitely than others these distinctions. In Chinese they are each marked by a separate word, and the syntax of these may be here noticed in addition to the remarks given in Arts. 216—222.

- 361. The substantive verbs may be arranged thus:
- 1. shí 是 'to be, is, was,' that is a being by nature, or at least apparently so being. The verb hí 惊, 'is,' is used in the Canton dialect for shí, and in the books in this sense, and in a manner similar to the use of naì 力, which is also employed occasionally where we might expect to find shí.
- 2. yiù if 'to have,' which implies the possession of some object or quality by the subject. Instead of saying, 'he is rich,' the Chinese would say, 'he has wealth.'
- 3. weî fing 'to become,' which indicates that the subject was not naturally such as the predicate asserts, but that it was made or became such. 'He was king,' would be, 'he became king.'
- 4. tsaî ff. 'to exist in.' This refers especially to the location of the subject.

 Instead of saying, 'the master is at home,' the Chinese would say,

 'the master is in the house.'
- 5. tsó the 'to do' or tsŏ te 'to make,' which both stand as the verb to be in the sense of makes, acts as, or means. When we say, 'that man is a good magistrate,' the Chinese idiom would require, 'that man makes (or acts as) a good magistrate.' The character tāng the 'to bear,' is used in a similar way: of. Hsin-tsing-lü [I. 1 and 2]. Kiaū 'to call,' swàn 'to reckon,' sāng 'to be born,' all stand in the same category with this; see the examples below.
- 6. naì II 'to wit, it may be,' which often takes the place of shi (1), but it seems to differ in this, that it is most correctly used in sentences where the predicate is not so positive an assertion as in those in which shi is used. It occurs also for yiù (2) in the kù-wḍn, when that character would signify 'there is, there happens to be.'

It must be observed that all these verbs partake more or less of the nature of the demonstrative pronouns, especially shi, $t\bar{a}ng$, and nai, which are commonly used as such in the literary style of composition *. Shi and nai, we and tso (tso, $t\bar{a}ng$, &c.) form pairs; we and nai are more common in books than in the colloquial style.

362. These substantive verbs come invariably between the subject and

^{*} This curious fact, that the demonstrative pronoun and the substantive verb are of cognate origin is clearly shown in Chinese, but it seems to exist in almost all languages. Cf. the pron. is and the verb esse in Latin; and see Becker's Organism der Sprache, p. 223, where he says: "Wenn man die Lautverhältnisse des Aussagewortes und die ganze Art seines syntaktischen Verhaltens in den bekannten Sprachen näher betrachtet; so kann man kaum mehr bezweifeln, dass das Aussagewort, wie das Pronom, ein ursprüngliches Formwort, und mit dem Pronom ursprünglich sehr nahe verwandt ist."

predicate in a sentence, and not at the end of the clause or at the beginning unless the subject or the predicate be omitted: e.g.—

ché-kó shí laù-jîn-kiā 'this is an old man.'

yiù yĭ cháng-kaū 'it is one foot high.'

tsż-jîn yiù tá-tàn 'this man is brave.'

tsż-tí yiù hū-tō yé-sheū 'there are many wild beasts about here.'

wer chúng số sín 'he was believed of all,' lit. 'whom all believed.' (B.)

t'ā tsána ngò weî shén-jîn 'he praised me, as being a virtuous man.' (B.)

sź tsai mữ ts'iên 'the business is before your eyes.'

hið kwān-hwá, yaú tsó kwān-fú, 'learn the mandarin dialect, in order to act as a mandarin.'

ngò tsố Chī-hiến^b, nì tāng-pīng, 'I am the Chi-hien, and you are a soldier.' t'ā naì hiá-chē 'he then was dismounting from the carriage,' i. e. 'it so happened that &c.'

wù nai wâng tí, Chīn-liû Wâng yè, 'I am the prince's brother, Chin-liu, the prince.' (17. l. 3.)

hwân pử chĩ-taú shímmô kiaữ c yiù-fử-kí tỉ jîn 'I do not yet know what is a happy man.'

chế-kó pữ swàn d chặn-t iễn 'this is not spring weather.' (29. n. 7.) sheù hí síng $L\bar{\imath}$ 'the chief is surnamed Li.'

363. The negation and intensification of these verbs is effected by placing the negative and intensive particles before each respectively. But it will be necessary to show which particles accompany the different verbs by giving a few examples of the usage in each case.

The verb shi \rightleftharpoons , 'to be,' takes $p\breve{u}$ $\overleftarrow{\Lambda}$, 'not,' before it to form the negative, and also the antithetical word $f\bar{\imath}$ \rightrightarrows \models , 'not to be,' occasionally in the same sense; e. g. $p\breve{u}$ shi $ch\acute{e}$ - $y\acute{a}ng$ 'it is not so.'

kó tsiāng-kiūn pŭ-shí tá-tàn tǐ 'that general is not brave.'

fī before shi, to negative it, is an idiom which belongs to the book-style.

fī-shi $\not\models$ $\not\models$ or $shi-f\bar{\imath}$ is a phrase which means 'true and false.'

364. The modification of this verb, as far as regards the intensification of its meaning, is effected by means of such words as yiii 文 'again,' yè 训, 'also,' piên 何 'then,' tsiii 寸忧 'then,' tsiii 'only,' and other particles of similar meaning: e.g.—

 $t'\bar{a}$ yiú shí p
ŭ haù 'he is still bad.'

 $ts\~i\ sh\~i\ ts\~in\mbox{-}hi\~ung$ 'he is for sooth my own brother.'

yè-shí nì sò shwŏ tǐ 'it is just what you said.'

pién-shí Ti Chūng-yŭ 'I am indeed Ti Chung-yu:' cf. Chrest 11. c. 16.

tsiú-shí tà-ji Hwâng-kūng tǐ 'it is the very same who broke into the Imperial palace:' cf. Chrest. 10. d. 14.

jĩ-t'eû tsiú-shí t'aí-yâng 'jĭ-t'eû is the same as t'aí-yâng (the sun).' [I. 57.] tán chĕ-shí tsīng-shīn &c. 'but it is just this, that in early morning &c. :' cf. Chrest. 9. c. 11.

Further examples to illustrate the use of yiù.

kŏ-chứ kŏ-tí yiù chíng-kīng jîn 'every where there are upright men.'

ts'iên-ji yiù k'ĕ-jîn laî paî 'the day before yesterday there was a gentleman (lit. 'guest') who came to make a call.'

 $\it ch\acute{e}{\it -k\acute{o}}$ $\it yiù$ $\it sh\acute{n}mn\^{o}$ $\it f\~{a}n{\it -p\'{i}}$ c 'what difference is there in this?'

yiù shing-jîn, yiù kweī-shin, 'there are saints, and there are spirits.' [I. 2.]

This verb is used also as an auxiliary to form the past tense with have: e.g.—
yiù tŭ-kwó-liaù 'I have read it.' yiù sié-kwó-liaù 'I have written it.'

366. There is a special negative for yiù, the opposite of it, $m\ddot{u}$ $\mathring{\gamma}$ 'to be without,' just as $f\bar{\imath}$, 'not to be,' is used as the negative of $sh\tilde{\imath}$ 'to be:' e. g.—

k'ān-pŭ-ch'ŭ-laî, mŭ-yiù kwāng-liâng d, 'I cannot see, there is no light.' ché-kô ch'â mŭ-yiù yên-sĭ c 'this tea has no colour,' or 'there is no colour in this tea.'

nì shườ tsō liaù, mữ-yiù shímmô kwân-hi f, 'if you make a mistake, it will not be of any consequence.'

laù-t'iēn-yê mŭ-yiù pŭ-paù-yiús tĭ 'heaven will not be wanting in protecting him.' [I. 31.]

fī \$\frac{1}{2}\$ also occurs as the negative of yiù: e.g.—

 $f\bar{\imath}$ yiù sở ki
ứ yè 'there is nothing else to ask;' v. Haú-ki
ứ-chuến, Chrest. 8. o. 30.

It will be seen in the Arts. on the forms of interrogation that $m\ddot{u}$ -yiù at the close of a sentence often means, 'or not?' And this compound verb $m\ddot{u}$ -yiù 'there is not, not to have,' also helps to form the perfect tense: e.g.—

kīn-jǐ mŭ-yiù fán shǐ 'there is no rice to eat to-day.' jǐ-t'eû mŭ-yiù ch'ŭ-shān 'the sun has not arisen.'

367. The modifications of the verb yiù 声, 'to have,' are effected by means of the following particles among others: yè 世, which means, 'also,' $hv \dot{u}n$ 定 'moreover,' tsai 声. 'again,' $yi\dot{u}$ 又 'again,' $t\bar{u}$ 常 'all,' $ch\check{e}$ 只 'only,' $p\check{t}-ting$ 之。定 'must, certainly.' And in the style of the classics words of similar meaning are used: e. g. $y\check{t}$ 方 for $y\grave{e}$ 世, $kia\bar{i}$ 管 for $t\bar{u}$ 音. Examples of these latter will be found under each particle respectively.

t'ā pǔ sź, ngò tsiú-yiù î-kaū, 'if he had not died, I should have been supported.'

 $tsai-yiù t'ûng-ts'i\hat{e}n$ 'I have more money;' ef. Fr. j'ai encore de l'argent. $y\grave{e}$ $yi\grave{u}$ $f\bar{u}$ - $kwe\bar{\imath}$ $t\check{\imath}$ $m\hat{o}$? 'are there any more rich ones?'

hwân-yiù shimmô kiàng-ti? 'what more have you to say?'

 $\it liâng-mîn~pĭ-ting-yiù~\it liâng-sīn$ 'good people always have a good conscience.'

These particles may also precede m\vec{u}-yi\vec{u}: e. g.—

tsaí-mŭ-yiù ché-mô waía-ti 'there never was such a dwarf.' yè-mŭ-yiù ché-kó nâng-li 'I have not indeed such strength.'

368. The verb were fig. 'to do or make,' as a substantive verb, is used to signify that the subject holds the office of, or becomes what the predicate expresses: e.g.—

Châng yè pử weî lì 'but Chang was not polite,' or 'did not perform the salutations;' v. Haú-k'iû-chuén, Chrest. 11. f. 6.

 $k'\hat{\imath}$ weî $j\hat{\imath}n$ yè $t\bar{o}$ - $tsa\hat{\imath}$ $t\bar{o}$ - $n\hat{a}ng$ 'this is a man of great talent and ability.' $sh\bar{\imath}n^b$ weî $k'\hat{\imath}$ - $kwa\hat{\imath}^c$ 'truly it is wonderful;' $sh\bar{\imath}n$ is lit. 'deep.'

weî jîn yĭ-shīd pŭ-tsó sận-jîne lì-kì tǐ sź 'should a man all his life do no injury to others for his own advantage, &c.;' v. 366. for the apodosis.

This verb is most frequently used in the style of the books. It corresponds to tang \ddot{H} , tso \dot{H} , &c., in the style of conversation.

369. The substantive verb tsai +, 'to be in,' comes next. There are a few idiomatic uses of it, but generally the notion of the locality of the subject in the sentence will indicate the case in which it must be used.

pử chĩ tsaí yè pử tsaí 'I do not know whether he is there or not.' laù-yê tĩ maú-tsà tsaí ché-lì 'your cap, Sir, is here.'

"矮" "怪" "世" "損

- nì tǐ fú-mù tū tsaí mô? 'are your parents alive?' v. Dialogues &c., Chrest. p. 28. i. 13.
- ji, yū, sīng-sǔ tū tsaí nà-lì, 'the sun, moon, and stars are there' (in heaven);
 cf. Hsin-tsing-lǔ. [I. 10.]
 - 370. The common negative which is used with tsai is pi \overline{X} 'not:' e.g.—
 t'ā pi tsai 'he is not in' (=not at home).

mù-tsīn pử tsaí shí 'my mother is not in the world,' for, is deceased.

371. The verbs $ts\delta$ if 'to make,' $ts\delta$ if 'to do or make,' tang if 'to bear the office or act the part of,' if tiau 'to call or be called,' if tiau 'to reckon, to count,' tiau 'to be born,' are used as substantive verbs, the various accessory notions implied in them being understood. tiau is followed by $ts\delta$ or $ts\delta$ sometimes, and the two may be translated 'is said to be' or 'is called:' e.g.—

nì kiaŭ-tsó shimmô mîng? 'what is your name?' cf. Hsin-tsing-lŭ. [75.] hô-kú tsŏ tsż t'aŭ-yên? 'what reason is there for these formal expressions?' cf. Haú-k'iû-chuén, Chrest. p. 9. f. 24.

nâ sān-kô tsiāng-kiūn tāng nû-ts'aî 'took three generals and made them slaves:' cf. also sāng-ping 'to be sick,' and sāng-k'î 'to be angry.'

These are negatived by the usual word $p \check{u} \times 1$ 'not.'

372. The verb $nai \mathcal{I}_{\mathcal{I}}$ 'to wit, is,' remains to be noticed. It is more common to the books than to the conversation; it sometimes corresponds with shi, and sometimes with $yi\hat{u}$.

haú shén ậr wú-ŏ naì jîn chĩ châng-ts'îng 'to love the good and hate the evil is man's common disposition.'

373. Two of these substantive verbs are often united to strengthen the expression: e. g.—

yĭ-haû a kià-tsiè b shí mŭ-yiù tǐ 'there is not a particle of fiction in it.'
(Prém. Brid. p. 51.)

374. Shi 是 is often redundant, and wei 完 is used at the beginning of a sentence sometimes, where it is hardly wanted, and where some expression for 'if' would seem to be needed. Thus when we say, 'if such a thing were to happen,' the Chinese might say, 'it being so and so:' and the modifying particles are used with the verb; e.g.—

hwân-shí laù-tá-jîn shwŏ-tĕ t'ûng-kw'aí 'of a truth, the old gentleman speaks very shrewdly.' Chrcst. 9. m. 1.

shí t'ā pǔ shí haù jîn 'he is not a good man.'

375. In simple sentences, in which the predicate is the natural attribute of the subject, the substantive verb is generally understood: e.g.—

nà-kó yûn-ts'aī a kaū 'those clouds are high.' [157.] t'iēn yīn-liaù 'the sky is cloudy.' [147.]

- 376. When a description of the subject forms the matter of the predicate then shi seems invariably to be used: e. g.
 - lū shí hĕ-hiá tǐ ch'aū-k'í, hwā-ch'ŭ-laî-tǐ shwuì, 'dew is the damp vapour of night changed into water.' [247.]
- 377. For the expression of tense and mood as regards these substantive verbs very few rules can be given. The ordinary auxiliary particles, which distinguish tense and mood, are not employed with these verbs, but the circumstances of *time* and *manner*, either expressed or understood, define the relations of tense and mood: e. g.—

wàng-niên ngò shí fú-kweī-tǐ 'last year I was rich,' or

wàng-niên ngô yiù ts'iên 'last year I had money.'

laî-niên ngò tsó fú-kweī-tĭ 'this year I shall be rich.'

tsŏ-t'iēn t'ā pŭ-tsaí 'yesterday he was not at home.'

- yiù-shî-heú ngò shí yiù tûng-ts'iên-tĭ 'I have been rich,' lit. 'there was a time (when) I was a person who had money.'
- 378. The *pluperfect* and *future perfect* tenses will be dependent upon some circumstance: thus—
- t'ā wí-tsāng laî ché-lì, ngò sāng-píng, 'before he came here, I had been sick.' ts'iên-sān-niên ngò tsó sāng-í tsaí Chūng-kwŏ 'three years ago, I was doing business in China.'
- nì mîng-t'iēn laî tǐ t'eû-lì, t'ā tsó wâng, 'before you shall have arrived tomorrow, he will have been made king.'

k'ò-ì tsó ché-yáng 'it may be so.'

Hwâng-tí sź-liaù, hwŏ-chè shí ché-yáng, 'when the Emperor died, it might perhaps have been so.'

- nì yè-lì mận-waí shüí, k'ò-ì sāng-píng, 'if you sleep out of doors at night, you may be ill.'
- pử yaú k'i chế-kô, K'ùng-p'á nì swàn hō-sāng, 'do not eat this, lest you should be taken for a Buddhist priest.'
- 380. So much information has already been given upon the formation of the kinds of verbs, in Arts. 189—215, that it remains to notice here only the same in construction, and to point out the *form of the sentence*, which affects the tense or mood of the verb; and the remarks will have reference to the words and forms given on pp. 70—76.

The various modifications of the verbal notion are produced in four ways:

1. By a change of the tone or the syllable; 2. By the position of the word in

the sentence; 3. By the juxta-position of some particle or auxiliary word, or 4. By the circumstances under which the expression occurs.

The changes of voice, mood, tense, and person in construing a Chinese verb frequently leave the word unchanged; the conditions under which it is uttered being a sufficient guide to the limitation of its meaning. Adverbial expressions of time, and indeed a whole clause in which a certain time is indicated, force the construing of the simple verb into particular moods and tenses; while the subject of the verb (often understood) shows the person which must be construed with the verb unchanged.

- 381. By a change in tone, the voice or kind of the verb may be altered,—an active verb may become passive, a transitive verb may become neuter or causative: e.g.
 - weî 'to make, to do' (trans. v.), changes into weî 'to be made, to be considered as' (pass. v.).
 - Le chén 'to seize upon' (trans. v.) becomes chēn 'to divine' (neut. v.).
 - 17 hâng 'to baste, to beat' (trans. v.), becomes hîng 'to walk, to act' (neut. v.).
 - Ling 'to hear' (trans. v.) becomes t'ing 'to hearken, to obey' (intrans. v.).
- 382. The position of the verb in the sentence may determine its relation to the other parts of the same, according to the following general rules:
- 1. A verb standing alone or as the first word in a clause is commonly in the imperative mood; e.g. laî chê-lì 'come here!' tsìng-tsó 'please to sit:' or it is intended to express the general notion of the verb, which is about to be spoken of, and is consequently the subject of the sentence; e.g.—

 $t\check{u}$ -sh \bar{u} shí shí-f \bar{q} n $ya\bar{u}$ -k \bar{v} n-tí 'to study is a very important thing,' t'îng-mîng shí nì tí p \bar{q} n-f \bar{q} n 'to obey is your duty:'

or the verb belongs to an absolute clause,—the expression of some circumstance connected with the principal clause; e. g.—

taú tsź-ji 'having arrived at the next day,' = when the next day had come; ef. Haú-kiû-chuén, Chrest. p. 8. a. 10.

2. A verb between two nouns belongs to the former as its subject, and to the latter as its object (cf. Arts. 291, 292, and 296); or the first noun being put for an adverbial expression of time or place, the verb stands with the subject understood in the present or past tense, according as the other conditions of the clause will allow; e.g.—

yé, pử yaú hîng-lú, 'in the night do not travel;' the fuller colloquial form is $y\acute{e}-l\grave{i}$ 'in the night.'

Pě-kīng, tseù pử haù, 'in Peking it is bad walking.' jǐ-jǐ kǐ-fán liáng-tsź 'every day he eats twice.'

3. One verb following another directly or indirectly, without a particle being between, must be considered as expressing a purpose or a result: e.g.—

t'ā laî, k'ān, 'he is come to look.'
ngò hîng lú tō, sāng-ping, 'I walked much and fell sick.'

In these rules we cannot take cognizance of the auxiliary verbs as such, because they are often attached to the simple verb, and become part of a compound with it.

- 383. The auxiliary verbs and particles which are used to modify the verbal notion have been given in Arts. 192, 194, 197, and 199. And here it may be remarked, that the verbal notion may be viewed under two aspects: 1st, as expressing the entire and general notion of the verb as an abstract idea, and independent of any positive act; 2ndly, as entering into relation with some real transaction. Two expressions therefore commonly occur, which correspond to this distinction; one, general, the other particular.
- 384. Verbs which express a general notion are such as those given in Arts. 200 and 203: e. g.—
 - (Gen.) tŭ-shū, shí nì-tǐ pạn-fạn, 'to study is your duty.'
 - (Par.) t'ā pŭ-k'àng từ Sź-shū 'he will not learn the Sź-shū.'
- (Gen.) kǐ-fán, shí jîn-jîn pǐ-tíng tsó tǐ, 'to eat, is what all men must do.'
- (Par.) taú-tí ngò mǔ-yiù shímmô fán k'ǐ 'but I have no rice to eat.'
- (Gen.) nì k'ò-ì tà-swán mô l' can you calculate l'
- (Par.) tsiú swán ché-kì sú-mǔ 'then reckon up these numbers.'
- (Gen.) kiaū siaù haî-ạr, tà-saú, 'call the little boy to sweep.'
- (Par.) t'ā saú-liaù ché-kó tí-fāng 'he has swept this place.'
- (Gen.) tà-fă yĭ-kô-jîn, tà-t'îng, 'send a man to listen!'
- (Par.) ngò t'îng-kién-liaù t'ā-tĭ hwá 'I have heard what he said.'

Those compounds with $t\hat{a}$, 'to strike,' do however frequently keep the $t\hat{a}$ when particular acts are mentioned: e. g.—

hiŏ-fâng tà-saú-liaù 'the schoolroom is swept.'

But with such compounds as tà-shwüì, 'to draw water,' shwüì, 'water,' would be dropped in construction: e.g.—

ngò yaú nì kǐ-ngò tà-shwii 'I want you to draw water for me.' shwii tà-liaù 'the water is drawn,' or tà-liaù 'it is drawn.'

385. It will be well to show, by a few examples, how each of the auxiliary words affects the principal verb when it is joined with it.

The character liai $\sqrt{}$, 'to finish,' is very commonly used after verbs, to indicate that the action of the verb is accomplished, and the expression may therefore be construed in one of the perfect tenses or by the perfect participle. The following examples will show its use:

chě-tě t'eû-liaù mîng-tǐ 'he only presented his card.' (8. f. 23.) lǐ-kě tsiú-yaú hîng-liaù 'at once I should be on my journey.' (8. k. 18.)

chě-kiến Shwüi-yuên, hwú tseù-liaù, tsìn-laî, 'who should they see but Shui-

yun, having suddenly walked up, enter.' (9. g. 4.)

k'ān-liaù yiú k'ān 'having looked, he looks again.' (11. f. 13.)

yaú yǐ-chāng ár chì, shì k'ī- siaù-tí -liaù, lit. 'wishing to take one cup and then stop, is to have insulted me.' (11. l. 13)

pă kaī laî tsź-kú-liaù, lit. 'ought not to come, to have taken notice of me.' (8. n. 28.) Cf. 10. n. 4. also.

In oblique narration liaù must sometimes be construed into the pluperfect tense: e.g.—

'The attendants announced, that the second son of academician Li (laî-liaù)

had arrived' (or 'to have arrived'). (10. h. 15.)

This character often means 'has become ;' e. g. $h\hat{u}ng$ -lia \hat{u} 'has become red ;' $p\check{e}$ -lia \hat{u} 'has become white;' $m\hat{u}ng$ - $p\check{e}$ -lia \hat{u} 'has become clear,'=has understood. Thus an adjective is changed into a verb when followed by lia \hat{u} .

When liaù is repeated, the first liaù must be taken as the verb 'to finish,' and the second as the auxiliary particle to express the perfect tense or the participle. It is however seldom found thus, though Prémare gives one or two examples of it.

sheū-wân-liaù ts'iên 収完了錢 'having received the money.'
châng kwô-liaù 嘗過了'having tasted.'

Liaù is very commonly used in the court dialect, and in the mandarin generally; also in the ordinary novels, but seldom in the Sān-kwŏ-chí and the better class of books.

Sometimes the object of the verb is placed between the verb and the auxiliary liau : e. g. kī-siau-tī-liau 'you have insulted me.'

386. The addition of $kw\delta$ $\frac{1}{2}$, 'to pass over,' as an auxiliary verb, is very common; it regularly forms the perfect tense when used in this way: e. g.—

nì t'ang-tě t'ā shwŏ-kwŏ-tǐ 'you understood what he said.' (28. d. 24.)

kién-kwó t'ā kì-tsź? 'you have seen him, how many times?' (28. g. 10.)

Liaù is frequently superadded to $kw\delta$ in the same sense of completing the action of the verb. $Kw\delta$ sometimes enters into the composition of a word, and then it cannot be looked upon as an auxiliary verb, but the verb \int seems to be used to form the perfect tenses in that case: e.g.—

nâ-kwó-laî 'bring over;' nâ kwó-laî liaù 'it is brought over.'

387. The verb yiù f, 'to have,' also occurs as an auxiliary verb, like have in English, but this use of it is not common in Chinese. When used in this sense, it must stand immediately before the verb to which it belongs: e.g.—

yiù kǐ-fán 'I have eaten rice (i. e. dined).'

tsùng mữ-yiù-k'ān-kiến chế-yáng-tĩ yĩ-kô-tsź 'I never yet have seen such a character as this.' (30. i. 16.)

hwân mữ-yiù-tà sān-hiá 'it has not yet struck three o'clock.' (29. k. 19.)

388. The verb wân $\stackrel{\leftarrow}{\nearrow}$, 'to finish,' is also set after the verb to form the perfect tenses with the other auxiliary verbs and particles: e.g.—

t'ā siè-wân ché-yǐ-sheù-shī 'he has written this ode.'

Sĩ-chạn pử tàng t'ā shwŏ-wân 'Sĩ-chun did not wait until he had done speaking.'

ngò wí-tsāng tsó-wân ché-kó sź-tsíng 'I have not yet finished this business.'

 $Ki \stackrel{\leftarrow}{=} C$ 'to stop speaking,' $pi \stackrel{\longleftarrow}{=}$ 'to finish,' and some other words have a similar force and usage in the books, where they will present no difficulty.

389. The particle i , 'already,' is used as an adjunct to form the perfect and pluperfect tenses: e. g.—

ì-fŭ hiá-jîn tsai hiá-chú 'he had hidden a menial in the lower room.' (8. b. 25.)
nà Lī kūng-tsż ì-tseù taú sĭ-ts'iên 'this Mr. Li had walked up to the festive board.' (10. h. 29.) sĭ-ts'iên is 'before the mat,' by met. 'feast.'

hîng siiī tsạn ậr sīn ì-sà 形 鲜育。而心已死 'the body indeed may remain, but the soul is departed.'

This word is however more frequently used as a book-particle than in the colloquial idiom. It is used with adjectives like *liaù*, but *prefixed*, and then it signifies *had become*: e. g.—

t'iēn-sĭ a ì-wàn t'üi-pīng b 'when the day had become late he withdrew his soldiers.'

And in phrases it often loses its grammatical force, or, to say the least, the value of the word is hidden by the figure ellipsis: cf. 9. f. 12.

390. Ki Thinshed, to exhaust,' is employed in a similar way, and is placed before the verb to form the perfect and the pluperfect tenses, or the past participle of the verb, according as the circumstances require each form of translation respectively: e.g.—

kĩ mũng ts'ź-kú 'having favoured me with this regard.' (8. o. 4.)

kĩ Wâng Lì ár-hiững kữ-liên sãn-shãng 'having taken with our two friends, Mr. Wang and Mr. Li, three cups in succession.' (11. k. 30.)

kí yaú-hîng, hô pử tsaù-k'ú l'if you wished to go, why did you not go earlier!'
(10. n. 21.)

kí sź t'aî-hiūng, pŭ ì pâng-yiù wei ts'îng, 'it being thus, Sir, that you make no account of friendship as a motive.' (9. b. 18.)

391. Tsang , 'already done,' stands before the principal verb as an auxiliary to form the perfect tenses and participles: e.g.—

tsù-sháng tsāng-tsó-kwó yǐ-kó-siaù-siaù Kīng-kwān 'one of their ancestors had been an insignificant official at the Capital.' (Húng-leû-mûng.) tsāng-kīng k'ì-ch'îng c' he has already set out on his journey.'

392. It must be observed too, that particles such as tsiu ;, $pi\acute{e}n$;,

jĩ-wĩ-ch'ũ, tsiú k'ì-laî, 'before the sun came out, (then) he arose.' (8. a. 13.) Kwó tsiú súng tsó 'Kwo then having invited his guests to sit.' (9. n. 15.) tsaù fĩ paú-yù Kwó kũng-tsż 'then he hastened to inform Mr. Kwo.' (8. c. 11.) yīn liên-liên tà kũng-kùng 'then he continuously bowed profoundly.' (8. e. 4.) yīn kiến shīn-ts'îng heú-maú 'when he saw the deep feeling and generous manner displayed.' (19. e. 15.)

tsiú-yaú hîng-liaù 'I am about to proceed on my journey.' (8. k. 20.) wàng-waí tsiú-tseù 'he went out, being about to depart.'

But in parallel clauses, or those joined with and understood, the verb which follows these particles must be construed like the verb in the corresponding clause preceding. And when the protasis is a hypothetical proposition, the verb in the apodosis will be in the future tense: e. g.—

393. Several verbs which are placed before the principal verb may be considered as belonging to the class of auxiliaries, since they serve to define the notion of time more clearly. For the future tenses and future participles, yaú, tsiāng-yaú, | , and tsiú-yaú, | are used. The following examples will show how they are employed:

 $ng \eth \ m \hat{\imath} ng\text{-}t' i \bar{e} n \ ya \acute{u} \ k' \acute{u}$ ' to-morrow I shallgo.'

laî niên nì tsiāng-yaú laî 'next year you will come.'

k i-fán-liaù, tsiú-yaú k ú, 'having eaten his rice, he was about to go.'

But after nì, 'you,' yaú would signify should or must: e. g.—

nì mîng-t'iēn yaú laî 'to-morrow you must come.'

 $t^*\bar{a}$ $p\check{\imath}$ -ya \acute{u} $t\check{u}$ -sh $\bar{\ddot{u}}$ 'he must study.'

hwâng-tí yè yaú sż 'the emperor must also die.'

kiaù-fū shĭ-tsaí yaú-laî 'the chair-bearcr will really come.'

nì kwò-jên yaú-k'i-fán 'you certainly will dine.'

siēn-sāng pŭ-k'àng laî từ 'the teacher will not come to read,' (won't.)

395. The verbs given in Art. 197 will need some further exemplification, as they play an important part in the modification of the verbal notion. We will take each in order. 1st, & for obtain, follows verbs whose signification requires some such supplementary notion to complete their sense: e. g.—

ngò tùng-tĕ nì-tĭ shwŏ-hwá 'I can understand your language.'

 $ni \ k' \hat{u} - t\check{e}, \ k' \hat{o} - i$, 'you may go,' where $k' \hat{o} - i$ is redundant, but idiomatic.

The negative $p \tilde{u} \times \infty$ comes between the verb $t \tilde{i}$ and its associate, and denotes that the action of the principal verb does not or cannot take effect; and this is common with all these auxiliary verbs: e.g.—

ché-yĭ-t'iaû-lú kw'ān-pŭ-tĭ 'this road cannot be widened.' kó yûng-jîn k'ú-pŭ-tĭ 'the servant may not go.'

Ti also forms, with certain verbs, an expression equivalent to utinam in Latin, in wishes, 'would that!' e.g. hán pữ-tǐ 🏗 'annoyed at not getting,'= 'would that!' but the more common phrase in conversation is $p\bar{a}$ - $p\bar{u}$ - $t\bar{i}$ or $p\bar{a}$ pŭ-tĭ, which signify respectively, 'would that I' and 'would that you,' i. e. with one tone it refers to the subject who speaks, with the other, to the object spoken of, or to the person addressed. Pŭ-tĭ enters into a variety of phrases, as liaù-pŭ-tĭ, 'finish not obtain,' for an intensitive, = very; and sometimes for 'it will not suffice:' cf. Chrest. 30. e. 21.

396. The verbs $k'\tilde{u} \stackrel{!}{\rightleftharpoons}$ 'to go,' $ch'\tilde{u} \stackrel{!}{\rightleftharpoons}$ 'to go out,' $k'a\tilde{\imath} \stackrel{!}{\rightleftharpoons}$ 'to open,' and $s\bar{a}n \stackrel{!}{\rightleftharpoons}$ 'to scatter,' have a good deal in common. They express the present or the perfect tenses of the indicative mood;—the imperative mood; or the potential mood, with can as the sign in English: e.g.—

k'ān pǔ ch'ŭ-laî, mŭ-yiù kwāng-liāng, 'I cannot see, there is no light.' t'ā nâ-ch'ŭ yĭ-kweī yâng-ts'iên 'he took out a dollar.'

shwüì ts'ûng shān-lì liû-ch' i laî 'water flows out from the mountains.'

t'aû-ch'ŭ, pŭ-yaŭ tàng ché-lì, 'Flee! do not tarry here.'

ngò pǐ-k'aī yǐ kweī mǔ-t'eû 'I split a log of wood.' (Indic.)

nì pǐ-k'aī yǐ kweī mŭ-t'eû 'split a log of wood!' (Imper.)

jŏ t a chèn-mei nì, lî-k aī t a yuên, if he flatters you, keep at a distance. nà-kiến mǐ-sź a lú-ch tǐ b laî-liaù 'that secret has come out.'

ngò piēn-yaú nì kǐ-liaù-k'ú 'I am determined you shall drink it:' (now, so

pres.) (12. a. 2.) 397. The verb pá [11], 'to cease,' corresponds in force to liaù], 'to finish,' as an auxiliary verb. But it very commonly has the effect of turning

the sentence either into an imperative sentence, or it gives to it a hortative

The following examples will show both these uses of pa:

Tǐ kūng-tsz ch'â pá 'Mr. Tǐ having done tea.' (8. j. 20.)

shwŏ-pá, yiú waí tseù, 'having spoken, he again made for the door.' (8. m. 19.) siaù-tí kīng-tsiú tsó-pá 'I am already seated.' (10. i. 15.)

fáng-sīn shwŏ pá! 'speak freely!' (27. a. 12.)

tsā-mận tū yǐ-kweī-ậr tseù-pá! 'let us all walk together!' (30. b. 17.)

ngò-mận sháng-chîng pá! 'let us go up into the city!' (28. l. 19.)

Hō-kí, nì taí ngò kwó hô pá! 'Friend! carry us over the river!' (28. n. 10.) Cf. also 28. l. 5. and 27. l. 28.

After a conditional clause, referring to the second person, or after an absolute clause, it will generally give the sense of may, or some tense in the potential mood, or be construed into the imperative: e. g.—

nì pử yaú tàng, kô-ì k'ú pá (or tsiú k'ú-pá), 'if you will not wait, then you may go.'

k'ĭ-fán heú, tsiú k'ú pá! 'after dinner, then you may go!' (or 'then go.') tàng-yĭ-tàng ngò ché-yáng tsŏ pá! 'wait a little, I will do it so!' which would be also, 'let me do it so.' (27. k. 5.)

398. The verb $ch\hat{u}$ $\uparrow \pm$ 'to rest in, to stay,' partakes of the same nature and grammatical force as the preceding verb. It may be said to attach itself to the verb in almost every mood and tense, to show that the action of its associate, which always precedes it, has taken effect: e.g.—

Kwó lán-chú taú 'Kwo opposed him and said.' (8. l. 8.)

Kwó yǐ-sheù chì-chú taú 'Kwo with one hand stopped him and said.' (8. m. 25.) chì-tě chú-hiá 'he stayed there.' (9. c. 26.)

ì-tseù taú sǐ-ts'iên chì-chú taú 'he had walked in to the banquet and stopped them, saying.' (10. h. 29.)

pién lǐ-chú tǎ-yíng taú 'then he arose and answering, said.' (11. e. 8.) Cf. also (12. c. 1) and (12. f. 1).

In its own proper sense we have $ch\acute{u}$ in (10. b. 15) $yi\grave{u}$ $ch\acute{u}$ -she\grave{u} $ch\bar{\iota}$ - $\hat{\iota}$ 'he had the idea of desisting (from drinking).'

399. The verbs laî to come, tsìn it 'to enter,' and lûng it 'to collect,' may be classed together as auxiliaries, being allied in meaning and use, and being often united in the same phrase. All three convey the notion of direction towards the subject, just as k'û 'to go,' ch'ù 'to go out,' and k'aī 'to open,' express the direction from the subject of the sentence. Laî precedes liaù when it helps to form the perfect tenses of neuter verbs, but when an object comes in between, liaù goes with the chief verb, and laî is suffixed after the object mentioned: thus—

nâ-liaù tǐ-tsà laî 'he took his card.' (8. b. 10.)
ngò hwân mǔ-yiù k'ì laî 'I have not yet arisen.' (30. o. 18.)

Tsìn and lûng precede liaù in the sentence, and come immediately before it: e. g.—

tsìn-laî 'to come in' (cf. hineinkommen), or 'come in!' lûng-laî 'to collect together' (cf. zusammenhaufen).

t'ā t'ī-k'ì pǐ laî 'he takes up his pencil.'

t'ā t'ī-k'ì pǐ laî-liaù 'he took up his pencil.'

hŏ-lûng nà-kô tūng-sī laî 'collect those things.'

hŏ-lûng-liaù 'they are collected.'

The student must learn to distinguish between words which stand as grammatical adjuncts from the same when used as principal verbs: cf. $ng\check{o}$ - $f\check{u}$ dr $la\hat{i}$, $ng\check{o}$ - $f\check{u}$ dr $k'\check{u}$, 'to come fasting,' 'to go fasting.' (9. c. 16.)

Many of these auxiliary verbs form the various tenses, or stand for the prepositions found with the verb in some European languages. The Chinese may be said to correspond with the idiom of the English in this respect. We may say either, 'he offered up tea, or he presented tea.' In colloquial Chinese, 'offered up' is the form of more correct phrase: cf. Chrestomathy.

yĭ-mién hién-sháng ch'à laî 'while they offered up tea.' (8. h. 10.)

400. The verbs shang \(\) 'to go up' and \(k \) to arise' are similar in their grammatical use, for they both signify the beginning or raising of the action of the chief verb; but they do not seem to have any effect in forming the tenses of the verb, although they assist in producing the perfect tense sometimes: e. g.—

tsiù lǐ-k'ì shīn laî 'then he arose.' (8. j. 25.)

yĭ-mién hiên-sháng ch'â laî 'while they were offering up tea.' (8. h. 10.) pŭ tō-shî pei-sháng tsiù laî 'not long after they prepared and brought up

wine.' (9. n. 8.)
yiú yiù Hwüî-tsà tsŏ-lwán-k'ì-laî-liaù 'there were also the Turcomans who
had rebelled.' Gonç. Arte China.

yīn nô-k'ì nà-peī-tsiù laî 'then he took that cup of wine.' (12. a. 9.)

kiaū tsó-yiú chīn-k'i liàng-chāng 'he called the attendants to pour out two goblets.' (11. j. 24.)

K'i is used sometimes to form the *inceptive* verb, even with a verb of an opposite signification, e. g. with hiá i down, to descend, while k'i means 'to arise:' thus—

hiá-k'ì tá-yù 'it began to rain heavily.'

This is exceptional usage, for the auxiliary is commonly suited to the action of the verb to which it is joined; hid is generally used for a downward movement and shang for an upward movement: e. g.—

hiá kô-weî-kî 'to play the game of siege (a kind of chess).' Chrest. litho. p. 9. c. 4. nì tù-sháng tō-shaù 'how much will you wager?' (lit. 'bet-up,'=Eng. lay.)
(27. g. 9.)

pā..... siàng-sháng yǐ siàng, lit. 'touching..... enter upon thinking!'

(6. m. 22.) = 'with regard to..... take a thought!'

401. Many other verbs are used in senses similar to the preceding, and assist in forming the tenses or in conveying the notion of direction implied in the verbs to which they are attached. From the preceding articles the principle involved will be seen; but many additions to the examples may be given by the student as he proceeds in his reading. The following expressions must suffice to exemplify these remarks:

yēn-hiá 印因下 'to swallow down,'=coll. t'ān-hiá 吞 |.
jǐ 八 'to enter' is used for tsìn 谁 'to enter,' and both are occasionally

used together; e. g. tsìn-jǐ 'enter!' tsìn-laî 'come in!' tsìn-k'ű 'go in!' and sháng-tsìn-k'ű, lit. 'ascend-in-go,' for 'go in!'

kàn-sháng-k'ú 'to pursue after.'

Each of these adjuncts is affixed to some verbs, just as prepositions are to assist in forming compounds in European languages. The student of the Greek will at once perceive the analogy between Chinese and that language on this point, as he will too in many other Chinese forms of construction and usages of words. (Compare $\pi\rho\delta$ s with $la\hat{\imath}$; $\tilde{\imath}\pi$ 0 with $la\hat{\imath}$ 3; $\tilde{\imath}\pi$ 4 with $la\hat{\imath}$ 5, $\tilde{\imath}\pi$ 5 with $la\hat{\imath}$ 6.)

Thus—nâ-laî 'bring!' nâ-k'ú 'take away!'

ts'ù-kwó 🏗 'to bring over:' e. g.—

kiaū-jîn ts'ù-kwó pĭ laî 'tell a man to bring a pencil over here;' so ts'ù-k'ŭ 'to take out,' ts'ù-k'ŭ 'to take away.'

402. When verbs compounded with these auxiliary adjuncts are negatived, the negative particle is placed either between the principal and the auxiliary,—and they then generally signify cannot do what the verb expresses,—or before the two verbs as a compound, when they mean does not, has not, or will not: e.g.—

a na-pŭ-laî 'cannot bring it.' na-pŭ-k'ú 'cannot take it away.'

siè pử sháng laî 'cannot go on writing.' taú pử ch'ừ laî 'cannot speak.'

b k'ĭ-pŭ-tĭ 'cannot eat it.' c t'aû-pŭ-ch'ŭ 'cannot escape.'

рй na-laî 'does not bring it, has not brought it,' or 'will not bring it,' according as the circumstances of the case require.

t'ā pǔ tsìn-laî 'he will not enter.' nì pǔ tsìn-laî 'you, do not enter!' (Imp.) hŏ-pǔ-lûng-laî 'cannot be brought together.'

nì tsìn-pŭ-laî 'you cannot enter.' ngò tŭ-pŭ-tĭ 'I cannot read it.'

ngò pŭ k'ĭ-tĭ 'I do not eat it,'=I will not eat it.

d kiàng-pŭ-tíng e 'cannot be settled by discussion.'

ngò t'īng-pŭ-kiến 'I cannot hear.' ngò pŭ t'īng-kiến 'I do not hear.'

f maì-pŭ-laî 'I cannot buy it.' в maî-pŭ-k' \acute{u} 'I cannot sell it.'

403. After these remarks upon the value of the above-mentioned auxiliary verbs, the explanation of such phrases as the following will present no difficulty.

tseù-laî tseù-k'ú 'to walk backwards and forwards.'

shwö-laî shwo-k'ú 'to say again and again.'

siàng-laî siàng-k'ú 'to think of this and that,'=to keep on thinking, in which form all such expressions may be construed. They cannot however be affected by the auxiliaries for the past and future tenses as the simple verb can; they signify merely the general notion in the infinite mood.

404. The *imperative* mood in Chinese is marked by certain verbs, which signify to *invite* or *beg*, to *yield*, to *cause*, to *call*, to *exhort*, and the like, being prefixed to the principal verb; but very frequently the command is

conveyed simply by the verb alone; e.g. laî 'come!' k'û 'go!' k'an 'see!' or with the subject only placed before it; e.g.—

nì pŭ-yaú-k'ú 'do not go!' (Lat. noli ire.)

t'ā pŭ-yaú-k'ú would be 'he will not go' or 'he may not go.'

The verbs just referred to are, tsing 言言 'to invite,' k'iu 文 'to beg,' jang 言葉 'to yield,' shí 文 'to cause' or ling 合 'to cause,' kiaū 印 'to call,' kiuén 韓力 'to exhort,' of which the following examples will show the use in this connection:

ts'îng nì tsẽ maŭ-tsż 'take off your cap,' lit. 'invite you to remove the cap.' hiū { † is prohibitive; e. g. hiū-shwŏ 'do not say!'

405. In pursuing the method of European grammar, and seeking equivalents for the voices, moods, and tenses, we may wander from the proper sphere of the grammar of Chinese: in the analysis of this language we ought rather to confine ourselves to the physiology of it, and leave the consideration of the method of expressing moods and tenses until we come to the third part (the Exercises), which may be looked upon as the synthetical portion of the grammar.

It remains however to mention the verbs which act as auxiliaries in forming the passive voice. They have been already given, but a few more examples may be of service to the student. The verbs referred to are, kién of 'to see,' shew of 'to receive,' k' of 'to eat,' ling of 'to receive,' ts'au of 'to meet with,' pei to suffer,' &c.: (cf. Arts. 212 and 213.)

pí Tǐ chế yǐ-tiữ taú: 'by Tǐ he was pushed away, with these words:' (12.f. 29.)
lǐ-wei! pǔ-yaú kién-siaù 別 有立 不 要 見 美 'Gentlemen! Do not
be inclined to smile,' a phrase made use of when a scholar reads his
own essays before the learned: (v. Prém. under 見, p. 61.)

Kién 'to see, to seem, to be affected by,' forms the passive here just as in other cases, although we do not so express the sentence in English, for we may say, 'do not smile!' It is literally, 'do not be seen to smile!'

t'ā pǔ kiến-hwān-hì 'he was not pleased.'

suī-jên ngò kǐ-tièn-kw eī 虽作 然 我 吃 點 虛 although I shall be a loser.'

pí tsě-jîn kiě-k'ú 被 賊 人 劫 去 'was carried off by robbers.'

406. The student may refer to Arts. 211—213 for several auxiliary or formative verbs and examples, and seek for further examples under the following section on the meaning and use of the particles.

Few precise rules can be given for construing verbs into certain moods and tenses, beyond those already noticed, because the mood and tense often depend upon the circumstances of the action, or upon the previous sentence.

Examples of both will be seen in the passages given in the Chrestomathy. We must now proceed to the consideration of the syntax of the verbs and nouns, which serve to supply the place of the prepositions.

- 407. The verbs which are used as substitutes in some sense for the prepositions are given in Art. 257, p. 91. Examples of their use is all that is needed here.

Phrases: laî-taú 來 'come, arrived.' tsǐ-taú 接 'received.'

taú-chú 炭 'every where.' taú-tí 底 'but, still, after all.'

2. tsaí ‡; 'to be in a place,' implies position, rest in a place: e. g.—
tsaí-Kwáng-tūng tsó sāng-í haù 'trade is good in Canton.'
tsaí-kiā-lì pǔ-haù 'it is not pleasant in the house.'

Phrases: tsaí-kiā 家 'at home.' tsź-tsaí 旨 'to be without absence of mind.'

tsaí-hû 乒 'to consist in.' (B.)

3. ts'ûng fil, 'to follow,' implies motion from, through, or out of: e.g.—

t'ā ts'ûng Pē-kīng laî liaù 'he is come from Peking.'

t'ā tseù ts'ûng chîng-lì kwó-k'ú 'he walked all through the city.'

ts'ûng hwûng-sháng taú hiú-mîn 'from the emperor down to the lowest

of the people.'

ts'ûng fâng-ts' ch'ŭ 'he went out of the room:' (cf. 27. l. 1.)

ts'ung fang-ts' ch' u' he went out of the room: (cf. 27. l. 1.) ts'ung yuên ar-laî 'come from a distance.'

With a negative preceding, it implies means from or by which: cf. tsź (15) below.

4. hiáng [1], 'to go towards,' implies motion towards, but it is not so commonly used as taú (1).

hiáng-ngò laî 'come towards me!'

pŭ yaú taú-ngò laî 'do not come to me.'

kó-chĕ-niaù fī hiáng-t'iēn k'ú 'that bird flies towards heaven.'

Phrases: hiáng-nan 南 'southward.' hiáng-tsiên 前 'forward.'

hiáng-sháng h'upward.'

Hiáng in and yàng in are sometimes used for yù the 'to, at:' e.g.—
hiáng pâng-yiù shwò 'to speak to a friend.'

wei-tsz-shi yàng kö-kwö ch'uên-chĕ 'by this notification we address ourselves to the ships of all nations.' Wáng 望 and yàng 何, 'to look towards,' are also used like hiáng.

- 5. i 1 'to use, to take,' implies the means by which, and it precedes the instrument by which any thing is done, or the cause or motive for an action.
 - Yúng]; 'to use,' is more commonly employed in this sense in the colloquial style; and as i is looked upon generally as a book particle, the student is referred to the section on particles for examples of its grammatical use.

 ngò yúng-taū-tsì shā-t'ā 'I killed him with a knife.'

yīn yúng-sheù chí-chŏ Tĩ, taú, 'then with his hand he pointed to Tĩ, and said.'

- Na &, 'to take,' is also used in the same sense as yung, for by or with.
- 6. ki K, 'to arrive at or reach to,' is used for with, and, until, and with reference to; but this word is more common in the books than in the colloquial style.

k'ī-chā mo kǐ jù 稽 蒙 莫 及 汶 'the examination has no reference to you.'

kí ậr yû 及 二 月 'until the second month.'

It also has the sense of about in some phrases: e.g. lán-kǐ has 'to talk about;'—a book is 'about' (lán-kǐ) a certain subject. In this sense it agrees with that of pà ‡ [1] 'to take,' which often means taking, touching, concerning.

- 7. liên i, 'to connect,' is used in the sense of and, with (like cum or σύν); and at the beginning of a clause it often means in addition to.
 - liên hó-kí maú sž 連 將計 冒死 'he braved death with his companions.'

The verbal signification of *liên* admits of its being construed by several words, such as *both*, and, &c., and it often appears to be redundant at the head of a sentence: e. g.—

liên ī-fŭ sheù-shǐ a tū pŭ kien-liaù 'she found neither her clothes nor her head-dress.'

liên nì yè-mũ chíng-kīng 連 你也 没 正 經 'you too are without right principle.'

Phrase: liên-yè 連 夜 'day and night.'

8. taî 1 t, 'to act as a deputy,' is equivalent to the prep. instead of:

taî-ti t'ûng-hiāng-jînb sheú-k'ù 'he suffered trouble in the place of his townsmen.'

t'ā tai-jîn shŭ-tsiii-liaù 'he, instead of men, made atonement for sin.'

- 9. yù fil., 'to give,' involves the notion of the dative case with the prep. to or for. But more examples will be given of its use under the section on the particles.
 - tsaù fī paù-yù Kwó-kūng-tsż 'then he hastened to give information to Kwo-kung-tsz.' (8. c. 11.)
 - 容小弟去與仁兄作伐如何 yūng siaù-tí k'ú yù jîn-hiūng tsŏ-fā jū-hô? 'allow me to go for you, Sir, and negotiate the marriage, will you?'
- 10. ki 常点, 'to give,' is more commonly used in the conversational style for yù, as the mark of the dative case.

kiû nì kǐ ngò tsở chế-kó 'I beg of you to do this for me:' (cf. 27. a. 25.) súng chế-kó kǐ t'ā k'ú-liaù 'presented this to him.' tsaí a kǐ-ngò yǐ-pú-k'ān b 'give (to) me another copy to look at.'

it enters into several phrases in this sense: e. g.—

yīn-wei 'because,' wei-shimmô 'for what,'=why.

weî nì laù-Yu ngò kaù ché-kó 'on your account, Mr. Yu, I will change this.' weî shímmô laî liaù ? 'why are you come?'

ī-hò weî kiai 依河 為界 'taking the river for the boundary.' wei t'iēn-hia siaù 'to be a laughing-stock for the world.'

12. tüí 望, 'to be opposite to,' makes the prep. towards, opposite to (adversus), &c.:

nì tüí t'ā shwŏ 'speak to him!'
tüí t'iēn shwŏ-shí 'he swore by heaven.'

Phrase: tüi-mién i 'on the opposite side.'

- 13. t'ûng [], 'the same,' stands as the prep. together with (cum):

 ngò pũ-yaú t'ûng-nì k'ú 'I do not wish to go with you.'

 shí t'ûng nà-kó yǐ-yáng 'it is the same as (with) that.'
- 14. hô 末巾, 'concord,' is commonly employed as the prep. with, in company with,=t'ûng (q. v. 13. above):

ngô yaú hô nì hîng-lú 'I wish to walk with you.'

liên-jîn hô mà 'both men and horses.'

hô hiūng-tí yǐ-k'í hiáng-lì-mién tseù 'with my brother I went in.'

15. tsź 🗐, commonly 'self,' has the same force and usage as ts'ûng (q. v. 3.

above) 'to follow,' and therefore signifies 'from.' This is more frequently the case in the book style than in the colloquial idiom; and will be exemplified under the particles.

16. t' i 扶 'for, instead of,' is a more frequent colloquial expression than tai, mentioned above (8). T also corresponds with $y\hat{u}$ 'for, to,' as a mark of the dative (9).

ngò kiǒ t i nì siū 我 却 替 你 羞 'well, I am ashamed of you!' (Hsinching-tu III. 76.)

yāng-jîn t'ǐ t'ā ḍr-tsż tsŏ-fā 央 人 | 他見子作悅'he solicited a person to negotiate a marriage for his son.'

17. yīn K 'because of' and yiû h 'origin' are both used for on account of, by or through, although the manner of using them varies: e.g.—
yīn taū-tsž, sź-liaù, 'he died by the sword.'

yīn nì pǔ-nǐ 天 体 学 游 'because of your obstinacy.'

yīn wei p'a, pŭ k'i-fán, 'he could not eat through fear.'

yiû tsz mận tsìn 'enter by this door!'

yiû yuên ji ŭ 'by the garden enter the house!'

yiû wû-kwān chīng-pán a 'transacted by the military officers.'

408. The forms of construction, which stand as equivalents for the *relations* of time and place, commonly expressed by prepositions in European tongues, need some elucidation: (cf. Art. 258.)

Any general term for a relation of place or time may be used in construction, as a noun, with the preposition tsai in 'in' or ts'ing 'i' 'from,' (according as the notion of rest in or motion is implied,) placed before the noun to which such relation of place or time refers; the expression then becomes equivalent to a preposition with its case in Latin or English: e. g.—

ngò kú tsai-chîng-lì 'I reside in the city,' lit. 'in the city's interior.'

t'ā ts'ûng-chîng-lì k'ú 'he went through the city.'

nì tseù tsaí-chîng-waí 'walk outside the city,' lit. 'in the city's exterior.'

409. It is of great importance for the student to be able to divest his mind of the idea of a Chinese word being a noun or a verb, and to be able to treat any word as a noun or a verb, according as the case may require. The value of this is especially observable in the construction of words to express the relations of time and space, where we use adverbs and prepositions. Instead of saying 'upon the table,' the Chinese would say 'in the table's upper part,' tsai chō-ts\(\tilde{c}\) sh\(\tilde{a}\)ng. Several examples of this form of expression have already been

given in Arts. 258—260, and to these the student may refer. When the phrase thus formed, as an adverbial expression, stands as the nominative case, or the subject of a sentence, tsai need not be used: e. g. ch'îng-nüi yiù mì mai 'in the city there is rice to sell,' lit. 'the city's interior has rice to sell.' But the method of expressing these relations will find its appropriate place in Part III, where the exercises will necessitate a number of rules for turning English into Chinese. One caution should be always remembered, that the position of the words alone can determine how the expression must be construed. A noun may become a verb, simply from its position, and a noun may so stand with another noun, as to form a preposition in signification, although it is not prefixed (præpositum). Thus hiá-shān 'descend a mountain,' but hiá-fāng 'lower room,' and shán-hiá 'at the foot of the mountain.' Wai-kwō 'foreign countries,' kwō-wai 'out of the country,'= abroad. Shàng-mà 'to mount a horse,' mà-sháng 'on horseback.'

410. The adverbs do not admit of any modification of a grammatical nature, excepting their intensification, either by being *repeated*, or by an intensifying particle being prefixed to them. (Cf. Arts. 238—256, p. 84.)

It will be necessary to notice, in the next place, the particles which affect words and sentences, and thus modify them, but in a manner so peculiar as to call for a separate section, and a distinct analysis of their uses as attributive, connective, affirmative, negative, adversative, causative, conditional, illative, interrogative, dubitative, intensitive, exclamatory, and euphonic particles.

§. 7. The syntax of the particles.

I. Attributive particles, 的 ti, 之 chī, 者 chè, and 所 sò.

411. The very first principle of Chinese construction is, that the qualifying words and clauses precede those which they qualify, and though there is frequently nothing to show the point at which the attribute ends and where the object of that attribute begins, several particles do exist, which, under certain circumstances, show this. They have been referred to above in Arts. 130, 132, and 313.

As the effect of these particles is to throw that which precedes them into the form of a qualifying or attributive expression, that is, either the genitive case of a noun, the adjective, or the relative clause, we shall call them attributive particles; and here it will be well to illustrate their use by several examples. They were all originally demonstratives, excepting $s\hat{o}$, and the two first may be looked upon as equivalent to our s with an apostrophe, which appears to be only a contraction of his, its, or hers*; the last— $s\hat{o}$ —contains the notion of 'place.'

^{*} Since the above was written we have met with the following extract from a native author on the subject: * Fân yên chỉ chè 'Whenever chỉ is expressed,' b wũ yiù sò chỉ 'there is a thing pointed out,' esz' yiù sò shữ 'there is an affair connected with it,'

[&]quot;凡言之者"物有所指"事有所屬

白力 ti is used only in mandarin and in the novels. After a noun it produces the genitive case, after a verb it makes the participle, and after a sentence it must be construed into the form of the relative clause: e. g.—

hwâng-tí-tǐ 'of the emperor,' hwâng-tí tǐ mà 'the emperor's horse.' hwâng-sháng 'imperial,' hwâng-sháng-tǐ 'that which is imperial.' ché-kô shí ngò tsó tǐ 'this is what I made.'

yiù tseù-tǐ, yiù fī-tǐ, 'there are those which walk and those which fly,' or 'some walk, others fly.'

nâ-kó shí tsở jĩ laî tĩ jîn 'that is the man who came here yesterday.' kạng-tàng-tǐ 'just waiting,' or 'who was just waiting.'

412. With respect to the particle $ch\bar{\imath} \gtrsim$, Dr. Morrison says, that in the ancient books it occurs in the sense of yū 於, shí 是, tsž 此, î 灚, chí 至, and pien 镜. (See these words in the dictionary.) Its original meaning was the same as chi T 'to proceed, to go to,' or as a demonstrative particle, 'that' or 'this.' The meanings of all these words run into each other. Compare the notion in chi \(\frac{1}{2} \) as a particle to form the superlative; it signifies 'to proceed to the extreme,' or 'that;' e.g. chi-haù 'that good thing or person,' par excellence, therefore 'the best.' Although the characters 之, 此, 是, 至, are different, the ideas first attached to them were probably the same, and perhaps the sound too, for chi, tsz, shi, chi are all cognate in sound. the Chinese language became more analytic, the characters were invented and diversified, and words (by which syllables merely are intended), which had at first but one primitive meaning, came to receive special significations in certain connections, and, as a matter of course, distinct characters to represent Examples of the uses of $ch\bar{\imath}$ *: them.

jîn chī k'î sò tsin-gaí 人 之 其. 所 親 愛 'men, as to those things which they love.' (Tá-hiǒ.) Here chī=yū 坎 'with respect to.' Cf. Classics, vol. I. p. 233.

chī tsž yū kweī 之子于歸; 'this girl is on the return to her husband's house.' (Shī-kīng.) Here chī=shí 是. Cf. Classics, vol. I. p. 236.

d ti yiù sò wàng 'there is a place which is visited;' cliên shữ chĩ ts² yè,—it is an expression of connection and relation. See Dr. Morrison's Dictionary, vol. I. p. 34. See also the extract given in the Introduction, p. xxi.

^{*} The references are to vol. I. of Dr. Legge's recently published work: The Chinese Classics, with a translation, critical and exegetical notes, &c. Roy. 8vo. Hongkong, 1861. The author here wishes to acknowledge his indebtedness to this first volume, and to recommend it to the student of classical Chinese. The student may compare also the classic usage of chi' these, com. = 'only,' and tsis 'to go to,' com. = 'then.'

[&]quot;地有所往 "連屬之辭也 '只 '郎

- Màng-tsà chī Pîng-lǔ 孟子之平序 'Mencius went to Ping-lǔ.'
 (Chūng-yūng.) Here chī=chī 'to proceed to.'
- wi chī yiù yè 未之有也 'there never was such a thing,' where chī is merely euphonic, though in such a position it sometimes appears to represent the object of the verb yiù.
- 413. Chī Z frequently stands after a verb, as a pronoun, the antecedent for which is either expressed or understood; e. g. A T H H Z Z hiŏ qr shî sǐ chī 'to learn and constantly to practice it,' viz. 'what you learn,' (Lun-yü, ad init.) Here chī is objective, and occupies the same place as tsž J, in the Shanghai dialect, after verbs. There tsž is looked upon as a euphonic particle, and chī in the books, when in this position, is probably nothing more, or merely like it in some English phrases (cf. "Thu' es heute," in the Prologue to Goethe's Faust). The following is an example of two uses of chī; 1st, as a verb; 2nd, as a euphonic particle, as that just referred to: cf. kiù-chī / |
 - yiû shí ậr chī-yên-chī wei taú 由是而 | 焉 | 謂道 'from this place proceeding is called taú' ('road'). The yên is put in to separate the former chī from the latter more clearly, and to make the expression more rhythmical.

 $Ch\bar{\imath}$, used as the object, has also the effect of making $ts\hat{z}$ $\stackrel{\frown}{=}$, which precedes the verb, the subject, and prevents it from being the reflexive pronoun and object, which is commonly the case: e.g.—

ch'ang tsź shé chī 肯肯 自身 | 'he always shot them,' but

yìn taū tsz kīng 引 刀 自 亞川 'with a sword he killed himself:' v. Schott.

Chin. Sphr. p. 80.

- 414. $Ch\bar{\imath}$ is also subjective, and used as such in the $k\grave{\imath}$ -wan for $ch\grave{\imath}$ if; e.g. $k\grave{\imath}$ - $ch\bar{\imath}$ if the ancients; and it has the same effect as $ch\grave{\imath}$ (i. e. as a formative), and then it corresponds with $ts\grave{\imath}$ in the colloquial idiom. In this way it occurs very frequently, and it must be considered either as a formative or as a rhythmical or euphonic particle.
- 415. Chè is also an attributive particle, for it unites the whole sentence which precedes it, and makes the noun or verb to which it is affixed an attributive: thus, shwŏ-chè in l'he who speaks,—the speaker or speakers; kù-chè in l'those of ancient times,—the ancients.' But although the attributive force may generally be referred to this particle, it will be needful to notice the other more common explanations of it.

Chè $\stackrel{*}{\rightleftharpoons}$ is frequently to be regarded as a demonstrative pronoun, and stands after words, as the article δ , $\dot{\eta}$, $\tau\delta$, in Greek, stands before words, to individualize or make special, particular persons, things, or expressions; and most commonly where an explanation is about to be given of the object thus specified. This explanation which succeeds, determines not only the meaning of that which precedes, but also the grammatical value of the word itself; e.g. $j\hat{\imath}n$ -chè $\stackrel{*}{\frown}$ | would be either 'benevolence' or 'the benevolent,' according to the definition which followed: thus,

jîn-chè jîn yè 仁首人 也 'humanity is man,' (i. e. 'to fulfil all the demands involved in the human relations is to act as a man,') but jîn-chè lŏ shān 仁 | 與 山 'the benevolent delight in the mountains.'

So also the addition of the particle $y \ge 1$ or $ch\overline{\imath} < 1$, between the verb and $ch \ge 1$, separates the verbal notion, and causes the whole to form an abstract noun: thus,

sāng-chè ! 'those which are born or which grow,—the living.' sāng-yè chè 'that in which growth is or consists,—life.'

416. When in an explanatory sentence the subject is marked by $ch\grave{e}$ being attached, and the explanation consists of several words, or includes a relative clause, another $ch\grave{e}$ often precedes the final particle $y\grave{e}$ 1. It would be so in a sentence like this: "God is the all-wise and beneficent creator and preserver of all things."

 $j\imath \hat{a}$ - $ts\hat{z}$ $ch\hat{e}$ $tsa\bar{\imath}$ $k\check{\imath}$ $k\hat{\imath}\hat{\imath}$ $sh\bar{\imath}n$ $ch\hat{e}$ - $y\hat{e}$

如此上災及其身上也

'He who does so will bring evil upon himself.'

Prémare says that $Nga\bar{u}$ -yâng \Box \uparrow \Box \Box used chè-yê $|\Box$ for chè-yè, and also $sh\acute{\iota}$ -yè \Box for the same, in common with writers of the first class; and he gives one example which goes to prove that $ch\grave{e}$ \rightleftharpoons and $sh\acute{\iota}$ \Box alike mean this or is, as we choose to render the sentence *.

 $k u \cdot ch \bar{\imath}$ jîn yiù hîng ch $\bar{\imath}$ chè, $W \bar{u}$ -wâng shí yè,

故一人有行一者武王是也

'Among the ancients there were those who did it, Wu-wang was one of them.'

417. When chè is placed after a complete sentence the whole will form an abstract notion, or it will represent some particular action in an abstract point of view: e.g. after the sentence 'the soldier braves death,' chè would make the whole to signify 'the soldier's braving death,' which might form either the

subject or the predicate of a new sentence. 'Alexander went to India,' followed by $ch\grave{e}$, would become, 'Alexander's going to India.' Sometimes $ch\grave{e}$ follows two clauses, as in this example:

t'iaū-chĕ lwàn-p'ó chè, hô? Siūn-tsà.

若折卵 破者 何

'The cracking of the reed, and the breaking of the egg, how is it?'

(The nest was well formed and strong, but the support was infirm: cf. The house built on the sand.)

Yaū-Shān síng chè, T'āng Wù fán chī,

堯舜性者湯武反之

'The principles of Yau and Shun were perverted by T'ang and Wu.'

 $ch\bar{\imath} - ch\bar{\imath} - ch\hat{\imath} - ch\hat{\imath}$, $p\check{\imath}$ $j\hat{\imath}$ $ha\check{\imath} - ch\bar{\imath} - ch\hat{\imath}$,

知之者不如好之者

- 'Knowing it is not like loving it,' or 'those who love it are better than those who know it.'
- 418. Chè frequently serves only to mark the subject of the sentence, and to separate it from the predicate: e.g.—

kiūn - tsž taú chè, sān. Cf. Chrest. 3. e. 13-23.

君子道 二三

'The principles of the superior man are three.'

k'ò - chè, yù $ch\bar{\imath}$; k'î pŭ k'ò - chè, k'ù $ch\bar{\imath}$,

可 | 與之其不可 | 拒之

- 'With those who are worthy, treat; those who are unworthy, reject.'
- 419. Chè appears to stand like chī , for the object of the verb, and after the predicate, in the following examples (cf. Art. 413):

fū hô-weî chè? 夫何為 | 'but how are you to do it?'

Chūng-nī pử - weî ì shīn chè

仲尼不為已甚」

- 'Chung-ni never went to excess.'
- 420. The use of $ch\tilde{e} \stackrel{?}{\rightleftharpoons}$ does not date so early as that of $ch\tilde{\imath} \stackrel{?}{\rightleftharpoons}$. It is rarely, if at all, to be found in the $Sh\bar{u}$ -king and the most ancient classics, but it is very common in the $S\hat{z}$ -sh \bar{u} and all later classical writings. It is sometimes difficult to give any definite signification to $ch\hat{e}$, but if the student will bear in mind that it unites the whole clause and makes it participial, as when the is prefixed to a clause in English, or \hat{o} , $\hat{\eta}$, $\tau\hat{o}$ in Greek, he cannot be very far from apprehending the notion which the passage conveys.
 - 421. The remaining particle so fit, which originally signified 'place,'

perhaps 'that place,' has been classified with attributive particles, because it often has the force of the relative pronoun, and the relative clause is undoubtedly an attributive clause. The common rendering of sò is 'that which, what;' nì sò yiù 'i' what you have.' This character, like chè, appears to have been seldom, if ever, used in the ancient books, though common enough in the later classics of Confucius and his disciples: e. g. in the Sź-shū (4. c. 23), sò wet kù-kwŏ chè 'the kingdoms which are called ancient,' or, as is said in English, 'what is called an ancient kingdom is &c.' Again (4. l. 15), ... fī jîn sò nâng yè '... is not what men are able to do,' and (4. d. 17) sǐ-chè sò tsín, kīn-jī pǔ chī k'î wâng yè, 'the former ministers whom you advanced, to-day you are not cognizant of their loss.'

sò-weî hô sź? 所 為 即 事, lit. 'that which he is doing is what business?'= what is he doing? (B.)

sò-kién pǔ shū 所見 不 好 'our opinions (the views which we take) are not diverse.'

prik's so-pu-wei | 肚 其 所 不 為 'to slander is what he will not do.'

wû sò-pǔ-nâng 無 所 不能 lit. 'there is nothing which he could not do,'=omnipotent.

wû sò-pŭ-súng !!! 'E' 'there is nothing which they would not have given,' or 'which they would not give;' and this corresponds exactly with the Greek of Demosthenes, οὐκ-ἔσθ' ὅ-τι οὐκ ἐδίδοσαν: v. Dem. de Coronâ, Reiske 261.

423. Characters which may be called *connectives* in Chinese are rather numerous, but they cannot be designated as simply *copulative*, for they generally convey some accessory notion. The above however are the common equivalents for 'and, also;' and they imply an addition of something to the previous clause. We must consider each separately.

424. Yi 75, 'also,' generally comes second in the clause, and then, like rai in Greek, it means 'even' or 'indeed:' e.g.—

pu yǐ yǔ hū i 不 责意 实 'is it not indeed pleasant!' (shwŏ is here used for 惊 yǔ.) Chrest. 3. d. 17.

pŭ yǐ lǒ hū? | 赤 樂 乎. 'is it not indeed enlivening?' Chrest. 3. d. 25.

jên, Chīng wang, Tsà yĩ yiù pữ lì yên,

然鄭亡子亦有不利焉

'Yea, if Ching were lost, Tsz indeed would not have any advantage.'

And in many expressions it is simply intensitive: e. g.—

pì pǔ haù, tsì yǐ pǔ haù, 彼不好,此亦不好

'That is not good, this too is not good.'

Phrases $y\bar{\imath}-k'\hat{\circ}$ \overrightarrow{j} and $y\bar{\imath}-ha\dot{\imath}$ | $\dot{\eta}$ are terms of assent, = Well! Good!

425. If dr' and, and yet, and then, but, and consequently, is commonly used as a connective particle, but sometimes it has an illative force, and sometimes it is merely euphonic. It should be observed, however, that it never connects substantives: e. g.—

hô ì shĩ k'î pữ tsaî ậr shè chī

何以識真」才」舍之
(Whereby shall I know his want of telent and raise

'Whereby shall I know his want of talent and reject him?' Chrest. 4. e. 1, also 3. e. 26. and Art. 439.

kīng sīng âr hí chī 整理 而 虚 之 'he awoke in a fright, and then played with him.' (Chrest. 21. g. 19.)

pử lờ shên-taú, ậr wâng k'î kwờ,

不樂善道而亡其國

'He delighted not in virtuous principles, and so he lost his kingdom.'

It is joined with tsiè in the following example:

Ar-tsiè jǐ pīn 面 目 宫 'and moreover he daily grew poorer.'

And it is euphonic in the following apodosis:

.. Ar-hwàng yū jîn hû! 面 况 於 人 乒 '.. much more as regards man!'

426. The difference between $yi\acute{a}$ \nearrow and $y \acute{i}$ \nearrow , each of which means 'also,' seems to be that the former has a more purely connective force, and often stands at the beginning of a clause, though it does sometimes take the second or third place with the signification 'again:' e. g.—

yiú wí weí pǔ k'ò 又未為不可 'and it is not yet considered impossible.'

k'ùng-p'd yiú shí chì - tũng-hwá - sĩ

恐怕又是指東話西

'I fear that he will again say one thing and mean another,' lit. 'point to the east and talk about the west.'

yiú chẽ - shí siaù, pîng pừ shườ - ch'ừ ch'âng-twàn,

叉 只 是 笑 並 不 說 出 長 短

'Again he only smiled, and uttered nothing for or against,' (lit. 'long or short.')

In the following example, which is purely idiomatic, $yi\acute{u}$ is repeated, and may be rendered 'then' or 'and then:'

má-liaù yiú tà, tà-liaù yiú má, 罠 了 | 打, 打 了 | 罵

'Having scolded, then he beat; having beaten, then he scolded.'

This form of expression is admired by the Chinese. Cf. Chrest. litho. $S\bar{a}n$ - $kw\ddot{o}$, 11. c. 7, $f\bar{a}n$ - $ki\dot{u}$ $p\check{\imath}$ $h\breve{o}$, $h\breve{o}$ $ki\dot{u}$ $p\check{\imath}$ $f\bar{a}n$.

An intensifying form is kān-liaù yiú kān 看了 | 看 'having looked he looked again:' v. Haú-kiú chuến, 11. f. 13.

427. Yiú 又 is also used where yiù 有 or shí 是 might be looked for, as in the two following examples:

 $t^{\iota}\bar{u}$ - $ch\bar{u}ng$ $yi\acute{u}$ $k\bar{\imath}$; $s\bar{\imath}n$ - $hi\acute{a}$ $yi\acute{u}$ $k^{\prime}\imath$,

肚中 | 饑心下 | 氣

'In his belly he had hunger; in his heart he had wrath.'

ts'ẑ, yiú ts'ẑ - pŭ - tĕ; tsiú, yiú tsiú-pŭ - tĕ,

爵工餐不得,就工就工得

'As for refusing, he could not refuse; as for accepting, he could not accept.' $Yi\acute{u}$ must here be left untranslated, but it corresponds precisely with the colloquial usage of $sh\acute{u}$ 'to be,' which means 'it was this' in such expressions.

kwān yiú kaū, kiā yiú fū,

官又高,家 上富

' His office was high, his family was wealthy.'

428. When $yi\acute{u}$ is repeated thus in two parallel clauses, it may occasionally be construed by 'neither' and 'nor:' e.g.—

tsó yiú pữ gān, lĩ yiú pữ nîng,

坐又不安,立,上二寧

'He could neither sit nor stand with comfort.'

For several examples of the use of this particle the student may refer to the Chrestomathy: 9. i. 8; 9. k. 2; 10. j. 2; 10. h. 6; and elsewhere.

429. Ping f (also very commonly f, and formerly f, which properly signifies 'two standing together,'—'together with, in union with,' is used as a simple copulative conjunction in the style immediately above the ordinary colloquial. In the $S\bar{a}n$ -kwö chi, for example, ping and yiú are used together: (see also the first example on this page, where $p\bar{u}$ follows $p\bar{u}$ ng.)

yiú píng jĩ yū Hàn 又 | 入于 漢 'and together united in Han:'
v. Sān-kwŏ chĩ, Chrest. litho. 11. d. 9.

And on the same page at c. 21. ping is used alone in a similar sense.

Ping is used as an intensifying particle before a negative; it then signifies 'even, indeed, forsooth' (cf. the use of κal in Greek): $ping-p\check{u}-shi$ 'no, forsooth!'

ping wû-wáng 並 無 望 'utterly hopeless.'

430. Ping sometimes means 'both,' as in these two examples:

tsiē-mí píng meì 姐 妹 近 美 'the (elder and younger) sisters were both alike beautiful.'

laù - yiú píng-kiaī nâ - hiá

老幼並皆拿下

'The old and the young were both alike seized.'

Like many other words in the same category, ping enters into several phrases to signify the whole; e.g. yi-ping one and all.

Phrase: ping-kien if 'together with.'

431. Kien is commonly used in official papers for 'and, together with:' e.g.—

Pīng - pú, Sháng-shū; kiēn Tū-chă-yuên, yiú Tū - yú - shì,

兵部 尚書 工都 家院 右都 御史

'Of the Board of War, President; and of the Metropolitan College of Censors, an Imperial officer.'

The following belong to a higher style of composition:

kiēn ḍr yiù chī 兼 首 右 之 'altogether to have them.'

kiēn tsž ar ì | 此二 業 'both these meanings.'

432. K^{ϵ_i} 132, 'together with,' is used like $ki\bar{e}n$ in the official style of composition for 'and,' and generally as a copulative conjunction: e. g.—

Hiến-lìng k'i Hiế-taî 県常 合 | 拉臺 'the Worshipful the Mayor, and His Excellency the Commandant.'

433. Tsiè : 'moreover, and,' is used as a conjunction, and also means sometimes 'now' or 'anon,' and 'still, then,' &c. It also enters into several adverbial phrases. But it is not frequently found in the colloquial style.

nì ché siè hwá tsiè mán shwŏ

你這些話工慢說

'If you say this, then speak deliberately.'

tsiè k'ù tsiè tseù 目 月 ま 'anon visiting and running.'

yû, tsiè laù, maí tiên 全 | 老 買 田 'I, being then an old man, bought a field.'

434. Tsiè also seems to be a common prefix to the imperative sentence:

Siāng-kūng! tsiè pǔ yaú k'ŭ!

相 公 | | 要 哭 'Sirs! do not weep!'

tsiù, tsiè fāng-hiá 河 | 方文 下 'as for the wine, do desist.' tsiè k'ān hiá-hwüî fān-kiaì

|看下同分解

'Just look at the following chapter for explanation.'

435. Tsiè is frequently redundant at the beginning of a clause: e. g. tsiè k'ān t'ā tsāṇŋ-tǐ 且看他怎的 'behold, how he is.' tsiè mŏ shwŏ t'ā! | 荁 詩兒 仙 'now, do not speak to him!' tsiè chĕ-p'â | 只肯'I only fear indeed.'

Phrases: hwang-tsiè 7 | 'so much the more:' 4r-tsiè | 'but yet, and besides: chě-tsiè | , at the end of sentences, 'only' or 'alone' (B.): tsiè-shwŏ is the regular phrase at the beginning of a new chapter in novels for, 'the story goes on to say' (cf. Chrest. 17. a. 6); and 夫儿 kiŏ-shwŏ, 'to return to the story' (cf. Chrest. 17. m. 22): 1 kū-tsiè, kiuên-tsiè, both mean 'then, the case being so:' keù-tsiè 'carelessly;' tsiè-fū | 夫 'now, further;' tsaí-tsiè 耳. | 'again.'

436. Kǐ 及 and liên 連, which have been spoken of in Art. 407. 6, 7, as verbs acting the part of prepositions, also stand frequently as conjunctions. This might indeed be expected, inasmuch as with frequently stands for and in our own language: e.g.-

liên jîn mà 淇 人 馬 'men and horses.'

ngò liên nì 我 連 你 'I and you' or 'I with you.'

ngò kǐ jù | 🂢 🏋 'I and you.' (B.)

kǐ fūng Chaū-siēn.. 及 對 朝鮮 'and being appointed governor of

Other examples may be seen in page 139, Art. 407.

Kúng #, 'together with,' is also used in the same sense and manner.

437. The particle $y \in \coprod$, which will be more fully discussed in another place as a final particle of assertion, is used very frequently in the style of conversation for *and*, *also*, and stands at the beginning of the clause; or for *even*, *indeed*, as an intensifying particle, and then it stands immediately before the word which it affects: e. g.—

ngò yè t'áng nì k'ú 我也同你去'I also will go with you.'

tsiú yǐ-kĕ yè-pŭ-nâng liû! 京是 一 刘 世 | 常 留 'then you could not even stay ten minutes!' Chrest. 10. 0. 4. Comp. Art. 364.

438. The particle $f\bar{u} \not +$ is used at the beginning of the sentence for now, as a particle of transition, like then (cf. $f \delta \eta$ in Greek): e.g.—

fū Tsž chī kiá-chī yè.. 夫子之录 | 机 'now the Master's seeking,'..

fū jîn-chè, ts'ž yè | 仁者 蕊 | 'now benevolence is just kindness.'

fū hiaú-chè, t'iēn chī kīng, tí chī í, mîn chī hîng yè,

夫孝 | 天之經地 | 義民 | 行也

'Now filial piety is (what accords with) the order of heaven, the sentiment of earth, and the conduct of the people.'

fū jîn yiú ậr hiŏ chī,chwâng ậr yŭ hîng chī,..

夫人又 學之 壯 | 欲行 |

'Now when a man has learnt any thing in his youth and being grown wishes to practise it,'.. (Cf. Chrest. 4. h. 25.)

439. At the end of a sentence $f\bar{u}$ is merely expletive, or a mark of exclamation: e. g.—

mò ngò chī yè-fū! 莫我知也夫'no one knows me!'

nâng kaū k'î mŭ ậr hiá k'î àr chè, fī t'iēn yè-fū!

能高其目工下其耳者非天也夫

'He who can exalt his eye and depress his ear is no other than heaven!'

III. Affirmative particles, 是 shí, 然 jên, 也 yè, 矣 ì, &c.

440. The common form of affirmation in Chinese is the repetition of the principal verb used in the question: e.g.—

Q. nì laî mố? 'are you coming?' A. laî 'I am coming.'

Q. t'īng ngò tǐ shwŏ-hwá mó? 'do you hear what I say?' A. t'īng-kién-liaù 'I have heard.'

The simple assertion or affirmation of any fact is generally expressed by shi H 'it is so, it is the truth.'

441. But in the book style the particle of acquiescence or affirmation is $j\hat{e}n$ $j\hat{e}n$, which may stand at the beginning of a sentence or alone. At the beginning of a sentence $j\hat{e}n$ may mean 'it was thus:' e.g.—

jên Súng-jîn yiù mìn 然 某人 有 関 'it was thus that a man in the Sung dynasty was grieved.'

When $j\hat{e}n$ follows an adjective or a verb it is a formative particle, and helps to make an adverb. (Cf. Art. 238. β .)

442. Ye is a very common particle of affirmation, and stands at the end of sentences with the sense of 'forsooth, it is true,' attached to it: e.g.—

ì - wei nâng shing k'î jin yè

以為能勝其任也

'Because you would consider it sufficient for the purpose.' (Chrest. 4. h. 2.)

fī jîn sò nâng yè 非人所能 ['it is not indeed what man can do.' (Chrest. 4. 1. 5.)

Meù lĩ wàn-chữ-chĩ, tsĩ tsĩ yè!

某力挽出之即妻也

'M. with force dragged it out, and behold it was his wife!'

wâng-yâng pû - laû, wî weî chî yè,

亡羊補牢未為遲也

'Though the sheep is lost, it is never too late to mend the fold.'

 $Y\hat{e}$ seems to be used in sentences conveying an assertion, whether affirmative or negative, and it helps to affirm the truth of each respectively.

443. Sometimes $y \ge 0$ merely creates a pause in the sense of the passage, or makes a division of the members of the sentence itself: e.g.—

k'î yên yè shén 其 言 也 羞 'his words are good.'

hiaú-ti-yè-chè k'î wei jîn chī pạn yû!

孝弟一者其為仁之本與

'Filial piety and fraternal love,—these are the sources of benevolence!'

Phrases: wí chī yiù yè 未之有也 'there never was such a thing.'
tsà chī weí yè 此之 謂 也 'this is the meaning.'

444. Yè is sometimes used after proper names, especially when the name consists of a monosyllable, and when it seems to require some expletive to support it. It also stands as an expletive at the end of an answer to a question: e.g.—

Yiû yè 由 也, K'iû yè 末 也, 'Yiu, K'iu (names of philosophers).'
k'ò-hû? pǔ-k'ò-yè! 可 华, 不 可 执, 'May he? He may not!'

yiù-hû! wí-yiù-yè! 有乎,未有 |, 'Is there any! There is not!'

Yè is found as an adjunct with chè
otin
otin, chè-yè and <math>yè-chè (cf. Arts. 415 and 416); also with $f\bar{u}
otin, yè-f\bar{u}$ (cf. Art. 439); and with $tsa\bar{\imath}
otin, yè-tsa\bar{\imath};$ with $y\hat{u}
otin, yè-y\hat{u};$ with i
otin, yè-i; and with $y\hat{v}
otin, yè-y\hat{v}.$

445. Yên is found either at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of sentences. At the beginning it is an interrogative particle; in the middle it marks a pause in the sentence; and at the end it has an affirmative or assertive force, and has sometimes the value of a mark of admiration.

Examples.

fū yên yiù sò ì ? 夫馬有所倚'now what was there to rest upon?'
shǎ kī yên yúng niû taū ? 殺雞馬用牛刀'in killing a fowl
why use an ox knife?'

pŭ nâng k'āng shīn, yên nâng k'āng tsūng?

不能亢身焉能亢崇

'Not being able to screen myself, how can I screen my kinsmen?'

 $ki\bar{u}n$ $ts\hat{z}$ $ch\bar{\imath}$ $kv\acute{o}$ $j\hat{u}$ $j\check{\imath}$ - $y\check{u}$ $ch\bar{\imath}$ $sh\check{\imath}$ $y\hat{e}n!$

君子之過如日月之食」

'The good man's errors are like the eclipses of the sun and moon!' (i. e. they are but partial obscurations.)

446. The particle i $\not\gtrsim$ is commonly *final*, either at the end of a clause or of a sentence.

siàng pǐ jên ì 相 义 然 | 'I think it must be so.'

jîn î 4r-ì-ì 仁義而已 | 'humanity and justice, and nothing else.'
wû wî chī-chī ì 我未知之 | 'I do not yet know it.'

 $ta\acute{u}$ - $ch\bar{\imath}$ $p\breve{u}$ - $h\hat{\imath}ng$ $y\grave{e}$ $w\imath\hat{\imath}$ $ch\bar{\imath}$ - $ch\bar{\imath}$ $\grave{\imath}$

道之不行也吾知之矣

- 'That principles are not followed I know it,' (i. e. the reason) =
- 'I know why right principles are not acted upon.'
- 447. The particle i closes the predicate of an affirmative or of a negative sentence, but it most commonly ends an affirmative clause or sentence. Yè \ seems to be preferred for closing a negative sentence, though it is often found at the end of an affirmation. The following two examples will illustrate this: (1) K'î wei-jîn yè hiaŭ-ti ậr haŭ-fān-shāng-chè, siēn-ì, 'those who, with respect to men, show themselves dutiful, both as sons and as younger brothers, and yet like to resist their superiors, are few.' (2) Pŭ haŭ-fān-shāng ậr haŭ tsŏ-lwān chè, wi-chī-yiù yè, 'men who dislike resisting superiors, and yet like creating rebellion, are not to be found:' (v. Chrest. Sź-shū, Lān-yū, 3. d. 13. et seq.) This particle i stands in the following affirmative sentences with the force of the Greek particle πέρ, implying the reality of what is asserted:

wîl při wei chī hiờ ì 吾 必 謂之學 | 'I must call him learned.' (Chrest. 3. j. 24.)

fü sź àr-ì 典 思耳 | 'not merely to be aimed at.' (Chrest. 5. h. 13.)

yúng-chī wû tú ậr tsaî li kwei ì

用之無度而財立匮

'Use them without measure and your means will soon be exhausted.'

yǐ yiù jîn - í ḍr - ì - ì! 亦有仁義而已」

'Surely there are benevolence and justice, and they are sufficient!'

 $w\hat{u}$ $w\hat{i}$ $ch\bar{i}$ $h\hat{o}$ $y\hat{e}$ - \hat{i} - \hat{i}

吾未之何也 11

- 'I have nothing more that I can do.'
- 448. The combinations of the particle i with other particles are many, and the signification and force of each particular combination must be sought for in the passages where they occur. They will generally assist in strengthening the assertion, or in intensifying the expression if it be an exclamation. Such are the following:

449. The two last examples in Art. 447 will serve to illustrate the use of it as a particle of affirmation, or rather of assertion. It properly signifies 'already done' (cf. Art. 194); and, as a particle, it adds to the force of the statement to which it is appended: e.g.—

pǔ tsǔ kwān yè-ì 不足韓儿 | 'not at all worthy of notice.'

450. But in the following example i conveys its own proper meaning simply: e.g.—

i-hu! i-hu! | 乎 | 乎 'Have done! have done!' or

i-dr! i-dr! | fff 'Enough! enough!' or 'No more! no more!'

Combinations:
$$i-i$$
 | 矣. Also $y\hat{e}-i$ $!$ | . $i-h\hat{u}$ | $!$, and $i-i-h\hat{u}$ | $!$, or $i-i-f\hat{u}$ | $!$ $!$.

451. Particles are accumulated with i in the two sentences following:

wi wi chī hô yè-ì-ì
吾·未之何也!

'I have not indeed any thing left that I may do.'

jī - yǔ chí yên ḍr ì ì 日月至 | 而 | |

'They continue for a day or a month, and no more.'

\$\frac{d}{d}r\cdot\text{2}\$ produces the equivalent for the English expression 'nothing else to do but,' in some sentences: e. g.—

weî fāng-sīn 作心 作 力 心 同 口 'but only take courage' (lit. 'let go heart'), which might signify, 'you have nothing else to do but to banish sorrow from your heart,' &c.

452. The double negative forms of expression $m \check{o} - f \check{\imath} = f \check{j}$; $m \check{o} - p \check{u}$, and $w \hat{u} - f \check{\imath} = f \check{j}$, each give the force of an affirmative particle, and therefore the examples to illustrate them may come fitly in this place. They usually bear the signification of 'surely.' Compare the following examples:

mö-fī tsiú-shí tà-jǐ yàng-hiēn-t'âng tǐ Tǐ t'îng-sāng mó! 'Why, surely, it is the very Tǐ who forcibly entered the summer palace!' Haú-k'iû chuén, Chrest. 10. d. 12.

ngò mŏ - fī shwŏ-hwâng pŭ - ch'îng!

我莫非說流不成

'I surely do not lie at all!'

mŏ-fī shí t'ā kién-liaù kweī!

莫非是他見了鬼

'Surely he has seen a ghost!'

t'iēn-hiá mŏ-pŭ chī k'î kiaù yè! Mạng-tsà.

天下莫不知其姣也

'In the empire there was not one unconscious of his beauty!'

wû - fī hiaú - chí t'iēn - hiá chī í

無非孝治天下之意

'Filial piety alone he considered to be the means of ruling the empire.' Chrest. Shing-yû, 6. b. 17.

nan-tau tsiu pá-liau! 難道 就 罷了 'Surely this is not all though!'

454. $P\ddot{u}$ -ch'îng $\overrightarrow{\Lambda}$ \overrightarrow{D} is added as a particle at the close of sentences which begin with any of the above combinations— $m\ddot{o}$ - $f\bar{\imath}$, $m\ddot{o}$ - $p\ddot{u}$, $w\hat{u}$ - $f\bar{\imath}$, and $n\dot{a}n$ - $ta\dot{u}$. If $p\ddot{u}$ -ch'îng were added to the last example, it would mean, 'Surely this will not be the end of it!' (See an example with $p\ddot{u}$ -ch'îng in Art. 452.)

nân-taú shí a kià-ti pŭ-ch'îng! 'Surely it cannot be all false!'

nân-taú shí ngò t'îng-ts'ó-liaù pŭ-ch'îng! 'Surely I did not hear incorrectly!' mŏ-pŭ kĭ-liaù c ngò pŭ-ch'îng! 'Surely he will not exactly eat me!'

Nì-shườ 作 讀 and nì-taú 作 道 may be regarded as initial particles of the same kind, and may be construed in a similar way.

IV. Negative particles, 不 pǔ, 明 fǔ, 勿 wǔ, 否 feù, &c.

- 455. Negative particles in Chinese are numerous and of distinct classes;—there are direct or absolute negatives, such as $p\check{u}$ and $f\check{u}$, &c., 'not;' and there are prohibitive and conditional negatives, such as $w\check{u}$, $m\check{o}$, &c., 'do not;' and others, which imply a negation, such as $w\hat{u}$ and $m\check{u}$, &c., 'without.'
- 456. The particle $p\ddot{u}$ $\uparrow \uparrow$ stands before the word which it negatives. It may be placed before a verb, an adjective, or a noun. Before a verb it is a direct negative, but occasionally prohibitive, and often means 'cannot;' before an adjective it has the same effect as un-, in-, in unkind, insincere; before a noun it denies the existence of the object, or the amount of duration, if it be a noun of time. It also enters into several adverbial phrases. The force of two such negatives should also be noticed.

Examples.

pŭ ì pâng-yiù wei tsîng 'you do not take friendship as a motive.' Chrest. 9. b. 22. siaù-ti yĭ pŭ jèn yên k'ü 'I cannot bring myself to speak of going.' Chrest. 9. a. 26.

рй k'ò pй hwiii 不可不會 'you could not dispense with meeting him,'= ought not to miss meeting him. Chrest. 10. d. 6.

So also pu-ti-pu signifies 'cannot be avoided,' = must: e.g.—

pŭ-tǐ-pŭ k'ú 不得不去'I cannot avoid going.'

pŭ-yûng-pŭ jû-tsż | 岩 | 如此 'it cannot be otherwise.'

This force of two negatives exists only when an auxiliary verb accompanies the principal verb. When two different verbs are each affected by $p\ddot{u}$, the expression means 'neither —,' 'nor —:' e. g.—

pǔ-kī pǔ-hân 不 紅 本 ineither famished nor starved.' Máng-tsà.

But pǔ wei pǔ-tō ì | 意 | signifies 'cannot be considered few,'
pǔ-tō, 'not many,' forming an adjective, in one word,—few.

- 457. The position of $p\check{u}$ in many colloquial expressions, in which it negatives the verbal notion, is between the principal verb and its auxiliary or the word which conveys the notion of its action having taken effect: e. g. t'ing- $p\check{u}$ - $ki\acute{e}n$ 'I do not hear' (i. e. so as to understand); $mi\acute{e}n$ - $p\check{u}$ - $lia\grave{u}$ (28. k. 27) 'cannot avoid,' lit. 'avoid not finish;' $p\check{u}$ - $t\ddot{u}$ i (29. l. 24) is a complete sentence, 'it does not agree,' = it is not right,—said of a time-piece.
- 458. After some words it enters into adverbial phrases, and may be occasionally construed by 'without:' e. g.
 - siāng fûng pǔ-yìn. . 村日 逢 不 飲 for good friends to meet without drinking..' Chrest. 8. l. 12.
 - siaù-tí siiī pǔ-tsʿaî . . 小 克里 上 f 'although I am without talent . .'
 Chrest. 4. e. 5.

Phrases: pŭ-siaŭ 不 消 'needless.' | pŭ-kiŏ 不 是 'unexpectedly.' (10. i. 11.) pŭ-chūng | insincere.' (3. g. 20; 6. j. 19.)

(8. n. 1.) pŭ-siau | 旨 'degenerate.' pŭ-weî | 性 'not only,' in opposition to yĭ-tsiè 圳 目 'but also.'

 pŭ-shî | 日寺 'soon.'
 pŭ-piēn | 1更 'inconvenient.'

 pŭ-k'î | 掛舟 'no great time'
 (8. g. 20.)

 (before or after). (8. b. 20.)
 pŭ-kwó | 過 'only.'

 pŭ-jǐ | 日 'not a day,' or pŭ-yaú | 要 'do not' (noli).

'not many days,'—soon.
pŭ-fă | 注 'lawless.'

pŭ-jaú | 真 'do not' (noli).

shaù-pŭ-tǐ リ | 背 'soon.'

459. Fŭ is a synonym of pŭ , and, like that particle, precedes the word which it affects, but its use is less general than that of the latter. occurs, however, frequently in classical writings. The following are two examples from the $Ch\bar{u}ng$ - $y\hat{u}ng$:

fǔ weî chī ì! 弗 為 之 矣 'I will not do it!'

shí chĩ ậr fữ kiến; t'íng chĩ ậr fữ wận,

視 之而弗見 聽 之而弗聞

'To look at them and see them not; to listen to them and hear them not.'

fữ mwàn k'î chỉ shí viû 弗滿其職是憂

'Because he had not fulfilled his duty he was grieved.'

460. Wŭ 💯 is a prohibitive negative, and stands generally at the head of the sentence. It is found less frequently in the colloquial style than in that of the books: e.g.—

wŭ wei yên chī pǔ tsaù yè!

勿謂言之不早也

'Do not say that I did not speak early about it!'

lì: wŭ - shí, wŭ - t'îng, wŭ-yên, wŭ-túng! Lạn-yû.

非禮勿視勿聽工言工動

'If improper, do not look at, or listen to, or speak of, or do it!'

wă wâng wă tsù chàng yè! Chrest. 4. m. 18.

勿亡勿助長也

'Do not forget! do not help things to grow!'

wǔ shé kì yûn jîn | 全己 芸人 'don't neglect yourself and weed out other men's faults.' Canton Proverb. Cf. also Chrest. 22. n. 23.

461. Feù \overline{A} , which is also read p'eì and p'i with the significations 'wicked, bad,' and 'to obstruct' (cf. the meanings of $f\bar{\imath}$ \Rightarrow), is a negative particle, equivalent to 'no!' 'it is not so,' and is sometimes used interrogatively as a final particle. It is undoubtedly allied to $f\bar{\imath}$ in the ancient language. The examples of its use and its occasional meanings prove this. Thus $sh\hat{\imath} - f\bar{\imath} = 1$, lit. 'is, not is,'='truth—falsehood,' or 'good—bad;' an expression which might also signify 'is it so or not?' But we find $sh\hat{\imath} - fe\hat{\imath} = 1$ is also used in this latter sense, 'is it true or false?' Other examples of its use as a negative particle are the following:

sò yên wí chī shí feù 所言未知是否

'What I say, I know not whether it be true or not.'

kĕ, tsǐ chīng chī, yûng chī; feù, tsǐ weī chī. Shū-kīng.

格則承之庸之+則威之

'If they repent, recommend them and employ them; if not, overawe them.'
Chrest. 1. k. 1.

462. The word $f\bar{\imath} \not\ni \not\models$ 'it is not' (opp. to $sh\bar{\imath} \not\models$ 'it is') is a strong negative particle, and often stands, just as $p\bar{\imath} \not\uparrow$, like inseparable prepositions in compound words, in which a negative is implied: e. g. $f\bar{\imath}$ - $l\bar{\imath}$ - $t\bar{\imath}$ 'irrational;' $f\bar{\imath}$ - $ch\hat{\imath}$ ng- $t\bar{\imath}$ 'uncommon.'

fī t'ûng yûng-i | 同 容易 'not alike easy.'

fī-fā mǒ tsǒ | 法莫作 'do not unlawful things.'

(Cf. Art. 442; the second example. Compare also Chrest. 6. j. 5. et seq.; and 9. l. 22.)

463. $F\bar{\imath}$ goes with $p\breve{\imath}$ in the same sentence, and unites with $w\^{\imath}$ and $m\breve{o}$ to form strong affirmatives. (Cf. Art. 452; three examples.)

fī t'ā pǔ k'ò | 刊 'cannot do without him.'

464. Wa , which commonly means 'without,' is frequently used as a negative particle, and sometimes as a prohibitive—'do not.'

t'iēn-sháng yiù, tí-sháng wù 天上有地上 | 'in heaven there is, on earth there is not.'

wû jû Súng-jîn! | 若某人 'do not like the man of Sung!'
wû ì î yè | 以異 | 'there is no difference.'

Phrases: $w\hat{u}$ - $j\hat{\imath}$ \rightleftharpoons 'not for a day at a time.' $M\phi ng$ - $ts\hat{z}$. = $(p\check{u}$ - $j\check{\imath}$.) $w\hat{u}$ -i/ | \rightleftharpoons 'wonder not! think it not strange!'

465. Mö f 'do not!' when it stands alone, is prohibitive, and when joined with adjectives and $y\bar{u}$ 'f it enters into several expressions for the superlative degree: e.g.—

mŏ-siaú! 'do not laugh!' mŏ-shwŏ! 'do not speak!'
mŏ wàng mŏ-laî! 莫往莫來 'have no intercourse with!'
mŏ shīn yū sī | 甚 放 斯 'nothing could exceed this.'
mŏ tá yū t'iēn | 大 於 天 'nothing greater than heaven.'
mŏ tá chī kūng | 大 之 『力 'excellent merit.'

466. Wî \star 'not yet, never yet,' supplies the place of the negative particle in many expressions: v. examples in Arts. 412 (wî chī yiù yè), 426 (yiú wî wêî pŭ-k'ò), and 451 (wû wî chī hô yè-ì-ì). And sometimes wî at the close of a sentence produces an interrogation: e. g.—

shwŏ liaù yè wí ? 設了 也 未 'have you spoken, or not yet?'

467. Hiú 1/1, 'to cease,' and hiú-yaú | III are prohibitives, as are also př III, 'to separate,' and př-yaú. And mì III, a synonyme of wû III, and fī III, a synonyme of fī III, are direct or absolute negatives: e.g.—

ming mì châng-châng 合 魔 當 '當 'destiny is not constant.'

kǔ tě mì châng) 新 有意 靡 肯 'his virtue is not constant.'

ngò sīn fī shǐ 我 点 | 石 'my heart is not stone.'

With $m\delta$, $f\bar{\imath}=nisi$, unless, but: e.g.—

mǒ chǐ fī hû 莫 赤 匪 抓 'nothing is a purple red, if not wolves.'
mǒ hě fī wū | 黑 | 烏 'nothing is black, if not crows.'

468. Wu the very commonly has the force of the preposition 'without' (sine): e. g. wu-ts'i the state (sine uxore)='a widower;' wu-ts' the force prole)='childless;' wu-fu | (sine patre)='fatherless.' These expressions are all classical, and are to be found in the "Four books." So also wu-jîn the , which = 'nobody.'

469. Several other words are found which serve the purpose of the negative

particle. Such is $w\hat{u}$ the negative of existence, which is a synonyme of $w\hat{u}$ \triangleq : e. g.—

k'î yĭ wû fāng 其 益 | 方 'the increase of it has no bounds.' Yǐ-kīng.

470. Wâng (i, ') to lose,' is also occasionally used in opposition to (i, ') as the negative of existence, but this use of (i, ') is by no means common:

hô yiù, hô wâng? 何有何亡 'what had I, and what had I not?'

471. Wáng is more common as a negative, and it is frequently found as such in the Shū-kīng: e.g.—

heú $f\bar{\imath}$ $m\hat{\imath}n$, wáng $sh\hat{\imath}$; $m\hat{\imath}n$ $f\bar{\imath}$ heú, wáng $s\acute{z}$. $Sh\bar{\imath}\iota$ - $k\bar{\imath}ng$.

后非民罔使民非后罔事

'If the prince be without people, he has no service; if the people be without a prince, they have no duty to perform.'

wáng yiù tsż sź 图有此事 'there is no such thing.'

chí jû wáng wận! 臣 右 | 臣 'act as if you did not hear!'

472. In the following example it is followed by a negative, and then a strong affirmative is produced: e.g.—

fân-mîn wáng pǔ tüí 凡民 周不 設 'among all the people there is no one who hates him not,'=every body hates him.

V. Adversative particles, 而 ar, 旧 tán, 只 chě, 倫 sháng, &c.

473. The adversative particles include all words which, being used as conjunctions, imply opposition, or the addition of something to the previous clause. The most common particle of this kind in the books is qr f, which, however, has several other uses: (v. Art. 425.) Examples of its use as an adversative particle are very numerous. Thus in the Chrcstomathy: $f\bar{\imath}$ $t'\hat{\imath}$ $w\hat{\imath}$ $y\check{\imath}$, $qr-yi\hat{\imath}$ hat $ch\bar{\imath}$ (5. a. 11), 'not only is it profitless, but indeed it injures it.' Again, hiaû-tî qr haû-fân-shâng-chè, sièn-ì (3. e. 17), 'those who are dutiful and kind, and yet are fond of rebelling against superiors, are few.' And pạn lĩ, qr taú sāng (3. f.13), 'let the first principles be established, and then practical principles will arise.' In the Epitaph of Ki-tsè,—hwān qr wû-siè, t'ũi qr pũ-sĩ (2. k. 20), 'in obscurity, yet he was not depraved; in ruin, yet he sighed not in despair.'

The particle ar, as such, does not appear to have been used in the ancient books, but only in those in and after Confucius' time.

shu ar pu tso 流 不作 to compile, but not to compose."

tān ậr pữ yên)炎而 不 厭 'tasteless, but not loathsome.'

pu st dr ti 不 思 简 得 'he does not think, and yet he obtains it.'

pử - sháng ár mîn kiuến, pử nú ár mîn weī,

不賞而民勸不怒而民威

'He gives no reward, and yet the people praise him; he shows no anger, and yet the people fear him.'

474. Tán H 'but yet, but especially,' is a common adversative particle both in the books and in the higher style of conversation. In the latter it is often joined with shi E, and it frequently stands at the beginning of an independent clause, like but in English, as an expletive. In this sense it is joined with che H 'only,' and it means 'simply.' It appears to be equivalent to doch, 'yet,' in German, in such phrases as,—Setzen sie doch! e. g.—

tán tsố pũ fāng! | 4 7 fbt sit down! don't fear!' and tán shườ pũ fāng! 'but speak! there's no objection!'

In the Chrest. (9. b. 3), tán chwāng i-sử 'but (or only) every thing is packed.' And again (9. c. 11), tán-chĕ-shí.. stands for 'but' or 'but only:'

tán chế wứ pâng-yiù k'ò ts'ìng 'but he had no friends whom he could invite.'

Tán

'conly, single,' and tān 'conly used for the above tán 'but, only:' e. g.—

tán chế kwàn hú-shườ 單 尺 管 胡 読 'but he only talks nonsense.'

475. Che f_{N}^{-1} , 'only,' comes also into the category of adversative particles. It is often followed by shi f_{N}^{-1} in the lower classes of composition, in which it is more commonly found than in the classics.

Tǐ 行手, p'a 竹门, kwàn 管子, and haù 拉子 also follow chế and intensify it or add something of their own meaning to it.

Examples.

 $shw\ddot{o}$ - $la\mathring{i}$ $ch\ddot{e}$ - $p^{\epsilon}a$ $n\grave{i}$ $p\breve{u}$ $s\acute{i}n$

說來 只怕你不信

'I would speak, but I fear that you would not believe.'

 $d\hat{r}$ - \hat{j} în mŭ - fă chĕ - tĭ kān tʿā

二人沒法只得跟他

'The two men had no alternative but to follow him.'

yèn - k'aī yèn - k'aī, chě tsó pǔ chī,

眼開眼開工做不知

'His eyes were open to it, but he feigned not to know.' Cf. Chrest. 8. k. 10; 9. c. 11.

476. $Ch\ddot{e}$ - $p^{\epsilon}a$ is the common phrase for 'I suppose, perhaps,' in certain clauses, and it is often used in ironical passages: e. g.—

t'iēn - hiá chĕ - p'â pŭ sāng tsaî-tsż!

天下」怕不生オ子

'I suppose there never was a man of genius in the world!'

chĕ-pʿâ nì kién-liaù kweī-liaù! 'perhaps you have seen a ghost!'

477. Chì :, 'to come to a point and stop,' is often used like chĕ, or perhaps for it, though sometimes chì is the more appropriate particle: e. g.—

gaí chī jū shīn, pū chì jū tsà, 爱之如身不止如子

'He loves him as himself, and not merely as a son.'

478. Weî 中性 (variously written 日佳 and 料性) 'only, but,' and nai 力 'then, but,' and shang 計 'yet,' are also used as adversative particles.

Examples.

weî kì weî kāng! 作 幾 作 康 'but be exact and firm!' (1. e. 7.)

In 2. n. 2. and 6. weî seems to be used in its original sense,—'to consider.'

sháng yiù yuèn-k'ě tsaí tsż (10.i.23) 'but we have a guest here from a distance.' niên süī laù - mai, sháng nâng ch'î - mà,

年 雖 老 邁, 尚 能 馳 馬

'Though aged and infirm, yet he can ride on horseback.'

479. In addition to the above, many words are used as adversative particles in the various classes of composition, and each class often has its own peculiar words for this purpose. Examples of the uses of the following will be found in the Chrestomathy: yīn K for 'then' (8. e. 4; 10. e. 25): tsaù 'then' (8. c. 11; 8. c. 29); piên W 'then' (9. m. 18; 10. a. 21); tsiù 'then' (8. a. 16); siù 'forthwith, then' (17. g. 27; 17. n. 20); tsi W 'then' (21. d. 8; 21. d. 14): also (3. k. 23; 4. a. 29); kiò | 'then, in the next place, but' (8. b. 1; 17. m. 22; 14. b. 3). Cf. also (1-tsi) | 'and then' (9. c. 18).

480. Fāng 方, ts'aî 禁意, and sinen 方定 (in official papers especially), with ni 方, kèng 竟, and tau 何, are all found in the sense of 'then,' or 'but then,' and may be looked upon as adversative particles. The exact meanings of these words may be found in the Dictionary (Part IV); and reference be made to the following passages in the Chrestomathy: (8. h. 2.—6. e. 9.—11. k. 15.—12. o. 18.) Compare also the uses of jîng 行 and jên 景, as adversative particles.

VI. Causative particles, 以 ì, 古女 kú, 因 yīn, 由 yiú, &c.

481. The causative particles take different positions,—being either first or last in the sentence, according as they are in construction or not with the other words of the sentence; for sometimes the original signification of the word is considered, and then it is held in construction, though the rendering in English must be by a causative conjunction: e. g. in the Chrest. 9. b. 22. pũ à pâng-yiù weî tsîng 'for that friendship is not your feeling,' or 'since you have no friendly feeling;' à commonly means 'to take, to use,' as it does in this passage.

482. The word i it is often joined with some other word.

It also shows the purpose or intention, the instrument, the means or cause by which, and the reason why: e. g. in the Chrest. it is yū shi (2. h. 15) in order to establish them in the world. Again, tsin sì i ping-ming (2. i. 23) to proceed to death by being regardless of life. And wei-shin i tsūn si (2. j. 10) to bow down in order to preserve the ancestral rites, and sūng-jîn i ching (2. l. 16) that the living might become upright. In the following example from the Lān-yū, i may be translated the reason why or the cause wherefore; e.g. our master's affability, good-nature, courtesy, moderation, and deference are the cause of his obtaining it it it it-chī): (v. 3. m. 7—14.)

Hô-ì shǐ k'î pǔ-ts'aî? (4. e. 1) 'by what means shall I know that they are without talent?' Hô-ì (I) (4. j. 21) means 'for what cause or reason?' = 'in how far?'

Coupled with shi 📜 (v. 4. k. 28) it signifies 'for this reason.'

Followed by wei (v. 4. 0. 20) it means 'because.'

In $y\hat{u}$ i $f\bar{\imath}$ -li (19. b. 11) 'declared his intention of deposing and setting on the throne.' In 6. a. 7. and 8. j. 14. it signifies 'in order to;' in 6. c. 2. and 17. f. 4. it means 'with.' And numerous examples will be found of its use with the above meanings in different parts of the Chrestomathy.

483. Yiû h 'origin, source,' when it forms the equivalent for a causative particle, is found at the end of the clause: c. g. chiū k'î chíng-lwán chī yiû

'if we examine into the causes of this disordered state of the government:' (v. Chrest. litho. 11. e. 19.) But at the beginning of a clause it often means simply 'from.'

Examples.

pu chī k'i yiu 不知其由 'I know not the reason.'

yiû kin ì-ki yuèn 由 近 以及遠 'from the near even to the remote.'

yiû Yaù Shán chí-yū T'āng | 堯 舜 至 於 湯 'from Yau and Shun down to T'ang.'

i-kĭ and chi-yū are the regular phrases for 'up to, even to' (usque ad).

Phrases: yiûn-yiû 森 由 or ts'îng-yiû 情 | 'the causes by which,' yiû-nì 由 休 'I permit you.'

484. Yīn K 'a cause, a reason,' is variously used for 'because, therefore, when, and then:' e.g. yīn jǐ-shān ts'aì-yŏ (litho. 12. b. 7) 'in consequence of that he went to the hills to collect medicinal herbs.' Yīn pạn-chū shī haū, î shī lìng-jîn (litho. 13. h. 20), 'as, in his native place, there was an influential military man, who, trusting in his great power, had ill-used people.' Yīn kiến shǐ-châng-taí mai kwān (17. l. 30) 'when (or because) he saw that the ten Constant Attendants were selling the offices of state.' Chě yīn laî tǐ tsaù (10. m. 16) 'only as I came early.'

485. When $y\bar{\imath}n$, 'because,' stands at the beginning of the protasis, $s\hat{o}-\hat{\imath}$ f or $k\hat{u}$, 'therefore,' is the corresponding word to begin the apodosis: e. g. $y\bar{\imath}n$ -wei $t^c\bar{a}$ laî ti $ch^c\hat{\imath}$, $s\hat{o}-\hat{\imath}$ má $t^c\bar{a}$, 'because he came late, therefore he scolded him.' $Y\bar{\imath}n$ $t^c\bar{a}$ $p\bar{u}$ laî, $k\hat{u}$ -ts $\hat{\imath}$ $ng\hat{o}$ $p\bar{u}$ -hw $\bar{a}n$ -h $\hat{\imath}$, 'as he did not come, on account of this I was displeased.'

Phrases: yīn hô yuên-yiû? 因 每 由 'for what reason and cause?'
yīn tsà chī kú | 此之古文'for this reason.'

yīn-weí | 為 'because.' yīn-yuên | 緣 'cause or reason.'
yiù-yīn yiù-yuên 右 天 右 緣 'it is providential.'

It is joined with sian iff 'to revolve, to go in a circle,' and jing is a before,' in the sense of 'to continue;' thus,—yin-sian and yin-jing mean 'to act as before, to be remiss, to follow routine merely;' and are found in the Peking Gazette with these significations.

486. It will be seen by the articles just preceding that yuên \$\frac{1}{2}\$ also performs the part of a causative particle. It is similar in use to yuên \$\frac{1}{2}\$ and the other causative particles, to which it is frequently united: e. g.—

yuên pạn tsüí ŏ | 本 買 证 'on account of our sin and wickedness.'

yuên-tsž pǔ yǔ-sīn | 此 不 境 心 'on this account he was unhappy.'
yuên-laî jû-tsž 原 來 如 此 'and this was its original state.'

yīn pữ kú tsīn - tsĩ chī yuên

因不顧親戚之二

'Because no regard was given to relatives.'

Phrase: yuên-kú | † † 'reason, cause,' used as a noun.

487. Kai in or in or hecause, must also be placed in this category. It always begins the clause to which it belongs. It introduces something to confirm or explain a declaration, like nam in Latin.

kaí sháng-shí châng-yiù pừ tsáng k'î tsīn chè

上 世 嘗 有 不 曾 其 親 者

'For in ancient times they never buried their relatives.'

kaí pàn làng-sāng chí pừ wàng 上本狼生志不忘

'For their origin, being born of a wolf, they never forgot.'

Kaí-ì |) is found as a phrase, 'for this reason.'

488. Ki [17], which is an auxiliary verb for the past tenses (cf. Arts. 194, 195), frequently marks the notion of causation, though the proper construing would be with being or having; and this may be turned into a clause beginning with since (quoniam, or si quidem) (cf. Chrest. 10. n. 21. and Art. 491): e. g.—

kí mîng tsiè chě 斯 男 L. 哲 'since he is enlightened and become wise.' Shī-kīng.

The absolute form of the sentence often necessitates this mode of construing: thus—chê-tàng 'this rank,' chê-yáng 'this sort,' when put absolutely, or as the protasis of a sentence, convey either the hypothetical or the causal notion, and must be construed by 'if this is the state of things,' or 'since this is the case.' (Cf. 21. l. 1—12.)

VII. Conditional particles, 若 jð, 如 jû, 假 如 kià-jû, &c.

489. Conditional or hypothetical particles are such as introduce a conditional or hypothetical clause; as, jo 共立 'if, as,' ju 如 'as,' kià-ju | 如 'supposing:' e. g.—

jŏ-shí kó chí-ch'îng laù-shǐ tǐ jîn . . (14. a. 7—15) 'if he were an upright and honest man . .'

jó tsaí ts'ó wa 若 再. 錯 幌 'if he again err.'

jờ t'ã pử laî, ngò tsiú pữ k'ú, 'if he does not come, then I shall not go.'

490. Shí 是 or jên 狀 is added to jŏ to strengthen it: e. g.—

jîn jŏ-shí k'án-kién tsĕ-sīng fī-kwó, kàn-chŏ pà k'ú-yaū-taí tà-ch'ing kì-kó sà kō-tā, tsiú k'ò-ì kiaì-ch'û pŭ-siâng, 'if when a man sees a shooting star (lit. 'a rebel star') flying over, he quickly, with his girdle, ties several sure (lit. 'dead') knots, he will destroy the evil omen:' (v. Wade's Cat. of t'iēn, No. 130.)

491. Ki in often has the same force as the conditional particle jö, and they are sometimes joined in one expression: e.g.—

kí yaú hîng, hô pử tsaù k'ứ (10. n. 21), 'if he wanted to go, why didn't he go before?'

jö-kī 'it being so, if it is so,' implying that it really is so.

In the books $j\check{o}$ -chè | $\stackrel{*}{\rightleftharpoons}$ is employed for 'if,' when the conditional particle is placed prominently forward.

492. Kiù-jû 假如 is found most commonly in scientific works, on mathematics, &c. Pi-jû 譯 | and pi-fāng | 方 or pī-yū | 印於 more commonly occur in the language of conversation. Kià-jū generally introduces a case for comparison: e. g.—

kià-jû yiù jîn, pŭ-sin lîng-hwân pŭ-mĭ, 'suppose a man does not believe that the soul is indestructible.'

493. Hwo $\overline{\mu}$, which is used for either and or, and implies doubt, may also fill the place of a conditional particle, and be construed by 'if' or 'whether;' it corresponds in some respects to the particle $\tilde{a}\nu$ of the Greek: e.g.—

hwŏ yĭ - shî fūng - chŏ hiūng..

或一時逢着兇

'If once perchance you should meet with evil ..'

494. Keù 一, shì 仗, t'àng 愉, t'àng jû | 加, and several other conditional particles are employed in literary composition (cf. Art. 265, p. 94): e.g.—

keù pŭ hiŏ, hô weî jîn? Sān-tsź kīng.

'If he do not learn, how can he become a man?'

shì mữ $f\bar{\imath}$ shí wữ yữ kiến. Si \bar{u} n-ts \hat{z} .

使目非是無欲見

'If the eye be evil, it is useless to try to see with it.'

495. But the conditional notion is very often implied without any conditional particle being expressed. The absolute nature of the *protasis* of a sentence often implies a condition, the result of the carrying out of which is expressed in the *apodosis*: (cf. Wade's Cat. of t'iēn, 68, 99, 183; but in 130, jŏ-shī, 'if,' is inserted.)

VIII. Illative particles, 古文 kú, 京 tsiú, プ naì, 則 tsǐ, &c.

- 496. The illative particles correspond to the causative particles; the latter mark the cause or the reason, the former the consequence or the inference (cf. Arts. 484, 485): e.g.—
- yīn t'ā shí pử tsūng-mîng, kú pử hiaù-tĕ, 'beeause he is wanting in intelligence, therefore he does not understand.'
- yīn-wei ngò sāng-ping, tsiú pữ laî, 'because I was taken ill, therefore I did not come.' (Cf. also tsǐ 2. j. 5. and 2. j. 20; 3. k. 6, 10, 23.)

Some causative particles indeed are used for both purposes; as, $y\bar{\imath}n$ $\boxed{\frac{1}{K}}$, i $\cancel{\cancel{N}}$. (Cf. $y\bar{\imath}n$ for 'then, therefore,' in Arts. 479 and 484.)

Very frequently the illative particle is not expressed in the *apodosis*, but it must be supplied in translation: e. g.—

- t'ā pǔ tsố Hwâng-tí, ngò pǔ tsố Sheù-siāng, 'if he does not become Emperor, then I shall not become Prime Minister.'
- 497. It will be seen that the illative particles keep their illative force most elearly in those sentences in which the *protasis* may be construed as a *cause*. If the *protasis* begin with an equivalent for *when* or *if*, the illative particle is *then*, and simply marks the sequence or the result of the condition.

Examples.

- heű ts'ûng kiến tsẽ shíng 后 從 諫 則 望 'when the prince follows good counsels, then he will become wise and good.'
- weî shíng jîn tsẽ chī kī 性望 人則知疑'but being a sacred sage, then he will know how to time things.'
- hiên-chè tsĕ nâng chī 賢者則能之 'when a man is wisc, then he can do it.'
- kí yiù tǔ, pǐ yiù sz 既有塔必有寺 'as there is a pagoda, there must be a monastery.'
- keù pǔ hiǒ, síng naì ts iēn 若不學性乃遷 'if one does not learn, then nature changes for the worse.'
 - IX. Interrogative particles, 乒 hû, 耶 yê, 何 hô, 弘 shǔ, &c.
- 498. The interrogative particles are very numerous. Some are initial, as regards position, as hô [1], shūī ‡‡, shǔ ‡‡, etc.: others are final, as hû ‡, yê ‡, tsaī ‡‡, etc. The former correspond to what and who; the latter to mere marks of interrogation which have a pronunciation (cf. Arts. 255, 256): e.g.—

k'î k'ò hô tsaī? [] | 'how will this do?'

àr chī-taú hû? 东知道乎 'do you know it?' (东 contr. for 丽.)
yiû jîn hû tsaī? 日人华. | 'does this come from men?'

499. $H\hat{o}$ $\vec{\Pi}$ 'what, why,' is most common in phrases and expressions for why? or how? e. g.—

tsǐ jû-chī hô? (4. b. 5; 4. c. 5) 'then how will you act?' (B.)

tsǐ hô ì ī yū...? (4. j. 20) 'how is that different from ...?' (B.)

hô-kú tsǒ tsà t'aù (9. f. 24) 'why do you make this formal expression?'

k'án shī jû-hô? (11. h. 13) 'what do you think of it?'

nì jû-hô pǔ k'ĩ (11. m. 13) 'why don't you take (eat or drink) it?'

àr hwán hô píng yê? 东島何病耶 'with what disease are you afflicted?'

jû chíng jîn hô? III F \ | 'how can he correct others?'

500. Some of these interrogative particles are indeed the same as interrogative pronouns (cf. Arts. 172—174), and, as such, are capable of standing for the correlative notions, which correspond to the several forms of interrogation; e. g. $\hbar \hat{o}$ 'what?' may stand for 'any' or 'some,' so may $sh\ddot{u}\hat{i}$ 'who?' or $sh\ddot{u}$ 'who?' e. g.—

shuî yau shuî laî? 言性 要 言性 來 'who wishes any one to come?' shu yuén shu chí? 孰 原 | 至 'who wishes any one to come?'

In reply to the question t'iën-tsà hô-tsaî (17. n. 3) 'where is the Emperor?' we have pũ chī hô wâng (17. n. 15) 'I know not where he is gone.' And in the phrase wâ-naî-hô 'without any other resource,' hô is used as the correlative of hô 'what?' (Cf. 11. j. 2. and often.)

Phrases: $h\hat{o}-k\hat{u}\hat{\imath}$ | $\frac{1}{12}$ 'for what reason?' | $we\hat{\imath}-h\hat{o}\hat{\imath}$ '\(\sum_{i}\) | 'why?' \\ $h\hat{o}-k\hat{u}\hat{\imath}$ | $\sum_{i}\$ 'wherefore?' | $y\bar{\imath}n-h\hat{o}\hat{\imath}$ '\(\sum_{i}\) | 'for what?' \\ $h\hat{o}-we\hat{\imath}\hat{\imath}$ | \sum_{i} 'on what account?' | $j\hat{u}-h\hat{o}\hat{\imath}$ '\(\sum_{i}\) | 'how?' \\ $h\hat{o}-j\hat{\imath}n\hat{\imath}$ | \sum_{i} 'who?' (18. h. 23.) | $h\hat{o}-tsa\hat{\imath}\hat{\imath}$ | \sum_{i} 'where?'

501. The interrogative particles $sh\ddot{u}\hat{i}$ and $sh\ddot{u}$ $\frac{1}{2}$, like $h\hat{o}$, partake of the nature of pronouns rather than of particles, because they generally require pronouns for their equivalents in the translation; but they belong also to the class of particles, for they are often merely marks of interrogation, which is sometimes effected without them.

Examples.

shí shuî chī kwó yû? 是誰之過 與 'whose fault is it?' tsố t'îng chè shuî? 作真 者 | 'who made the pavilion?'

shǔ wei haú hiǒ! | 魚 好 學 'which of you love to study?'

shǔ yuén shǔ chí yê? | 原 | 至 耶 'what does he desire which he does not obtain?'

Examples.

hô yiù yū tsì tsaī l | 有 抗 | 'what is this to me?'

k'ì yiù kiā yū tsž tsaī? 豊有加於此 | 'how can any thing be added to this?'

hî k'ò tsaī? Fij | 'is it possible?' or 'how can it be?'

wū tsǔ taú tsaī!鳥 足道 | 'how can we speak of it enough!'

503. The particle $h\hat{u}$ Ψ is joined with $tsa\bar{\imath}$ at the end of clauses: e. g—

wei jîn yi \hat{u} ki \hat{q} r yi \hat{u} jîn k \hat{u} -tsa $\bar{\iota}$?

為仁由己而由入乎」

'As for virtue, is it a matter for myself or for others?'

jîn yuèn hû-tsaī! 仁. 袁 | | 'is virtue so far away!'

504. The particle $h\hat{u}$ \mathcal{F} itself, when final, is interrogative, or a mark of exclamation or commiseration; but in other positions it generally stands for $y\bar{u}$ \mathcal{F}_{λ} 'in, with respect to,' and 'than;' and sometimes it is a mere expletive.

Examples.

chǐ yú hû chǐ shé hû? 執 筆 執 手 礼 身 | 'shall I drive the chariot or wield the spear?'

â hû feù hû? 古 | 否 | 'is it right or is it not?'

heú - shí chī shíng chè, mò shíng hû Hán yù T'âng,

後世之盛者莫盛」漢與唐

'The glory of later times does not eclipse the glory of the Han and the T'and (dynasties).'

yâng-yâng hû! 洋羊 洋羊 | 'how vast!' (lit. 'ocean-like.')

505. Yê $\| \vec{y} \|$ (sometimes written $y\hat{e} \| \vec{y} \|$) is another interrogative final particle, and, like $tsa\bar{\imath}$ and $h\hat{u}$, often has an auxiliary particle at the beginning of the clause: e. g.—

ki taí yiù píng ár heú t'aù yê! 豊待有病而候禱耶

'Why wait until you are sick and then pray?'

tsà k'ù kín yū jîn ts'îng yê? Chwâng-tsà.

此贵近於人情邪

'How does this accord with human feelings?'

hô ì chī kǐ jên yê? | 以 知 其 然 耶

'How can I know that it is thus?'

506. Some of the interrogative particles imply a negation. Such are, how the why not? (quare non); motific. It is surely, not otherwise than ..? (certe); and few to replaced at the beginning, but few at the end of sentences.

hờ kờ yên àr chí ? 蓋 各言爾 盂 'why do not you all speak your minds?'

Hδ $\stackrel{?}{\sharp}$ (usu. pron. ha $\hat{\imath}$ 'to injure') appears to be used for the above hδ: e.g.—

hǒ pǔ weî? 宝 不 違 'why do you not resist?'

feù yû mwàn niên? 在 填 流 车 'is he indeed of full age?'

tsử - hiá chĩ wù sĩn yữ feù yè?

足下知吾心!」也

'Do you, Sir, indeed know my intention?'

Several examples of mo-fī will be found in Art. 452, and of feù in Art. 461.

507. K'à !!! 'how?' is also an interrogative particle in common use in books and in some colloquial phrases: e. g. k'ì-kàn | 百文 'how dare I?' which is an equivalent for 'I thank you!' 'I do not deserve the honour!' Wu !!' , ho 日, hu 出 , hī 美, yên 黑, and gān 美, as well as k'ì, are interrogative particles when placed at the beginning of clauses.

Examples.

ki weî keù-fù yiù kī-kĕ chī haíl (Cf. ex. in Art. 501.) 豊惟口腹有饑渴之害

'Do only the mouth and the stomach suffer from hunger and thirst?'

süī tō yǐ hī i-wel? 雖多亦奚以為'though many, yet what use are they?'

wú hû kô? The | T 'what can be done?'

wú nâng tāng chī? 亞 能 當之 'how could I bear it?'

.wú hû ch'îng mîng l | | 成 名 'how will he perfect his reputation l'

hŏ chī yúng? 曷 之 用 'what use is it?' Yǐ-kīng.

wù-tsż hû pǔ lǐ hû? 吾 子 胡 不 力 | 'why not establish yourself?'

yên k'î ts'ûng chī? 馬 其 策之 'should he follow him?' (See also the first example in Art. 445.)

yên lì jîn yù i? 焉 驚 仁 與 義 'why forsake benevolence and justice?'

ān tě tsử sĩn hứ? 安得足心 | 'how can you be content?' ān nâng tử yè? 安能胎儿'how can we escape?'

508. There are various particles, or interrogative adverbs, used in the colloquial style for the question as $k i \stackrel{\text{def}}{\neq} i$ 'how many?' n i = i 'which?' $t s \bar{a} n g$ 'how?' (Cf. Arts. 255 and 256, and read pp. 27—30 in the Chrestomathy.)

509. The affirmative expressions nan-tau and pu-ch'ing (see Arts. 453 and 454), the former at the beginning, the latter at the end of the clause, also indicate a kind of question, which always expects the answer yes in reply to it. Nan-tau, lit. 'hard to say,' is in some respects similar to the German expression viel-leicht, vielleicht for sehr leicht 'probably, perhaps, doubtless;' and pu-ch'ing, lit. 'not perfect,' like nicht wahr? (See Schott's Chin. Sprach. p. 134. note.)

510. To the above $y\hat{u}$ \searrow or $y\bar{u}$ \Longrightarrow must be added as an interrogative particle: e. g.—

jên tsĩ Shán pǔ kīn yû? 然 則 霓: 不 禁 | 'if so, then why did not Shun resist?' (Cf. Chrest. 3. l. 29.)

X. Dubitative particles, The hwo, Hi! yû, &c.

511. By dubitative particles are meant such words as give a character of doubt to the clause or sentence in which they occur; and according to this definition several of the conditional and interrogative particles might come under the same category. Several adverbs of doubt have already been given in Art. 253. It remains to give a few examples of their use here.

Examples.

hwŏ pǔ chī kiaū-haú 武 不 知 時 號 'probably they knew not the cries out of doors.'

hwŏ yiù kiāng-hû 或有 江湖 'perhaps you have rivers and lakes;'
hwŏ yiù wûng heú | | 王 侯 'perhaps you have kings and

nobles;' which may be construed either &c. or &c.

k'it chī yû yǐ yù chī yû? 文 克克 斯 | 'does he ask for it or do they give it him (without asking)?' (Cf. Chrest. 3. l. 27.)

The following sentence from *Chwâng-ts* \hat{z} is worth inserting here to illustrate the uses of dubitatative and interrogative particles:

Kiǎ yû Yǐ shǔ shí ạr shǔ fī hû? 甲與乙孰是而 | 非 | 'Does Kia or Yǐ speak the truth?'

XI. Intensitive particles, L t'aí, tě, H tsů, &c.

512. The intensitive particles are words which are used to strengthen the assertion or negation in respect of some particular quality. They are generally verbs according to their primary signification, but as intensifiers they retain only so much of the verbal notion as will serve the purpose of emphasising the word or sentence in which they occur. We shall take each separately, with one or two examples.

513. Taí trai and the are very commonly used for too, too much.

Examples.

ché kí t'aí hièn 清言 計 大 防氣 'this project is too dangerous.'

t'ai làng tsáng siē 大 沪 箭 些 'a little too cold' (of a person or a place).

hiá sheù tě hàn-liaù 下手!狠了'you struck me with too much violence.'

kiŏ tĕ tsaù liaù siē ‡ 1 | \$\frac{1}{2}\$ | 'but too early rather.'

nì yè tě tō sīn 你也!多心 'to take it too much to heart.'

514. Shīn 記 'very,' tsǚ 郑 'decidedly,' kǐ 标 'extremely,' are all used as intensitive particles.

Examples.

wận-lì pǔ-shīn t'úng-t'eú 文理 不甚 通 透 'his scholarship is not very profound.'

shīn shí k'î-kwaí 某 是 奇 峰 'it is strange indeed.'

tsǔ wû kī-hwüí 綽 無 旅 會 'decidedly unfortunate.'

tsŭ wû jîn-kû | 1 trust 'utterly without inhabitants.'

ché yè-k'ò siaū-kǐ-liaù 這 也可笑極了 'this is indeed extremely ridiculous.'

kǐ mǔ kiaú tǐ hwá 極 沒 覧 的話 'language quite unintelligible.'

kǐ kiaù tǐ hwá-kūng | 巧白薑 I 'a most clever artist.' (Cf. Arts. 331 and 334.)

Various other words are used as intensitive particles, such as haù 'good,' $sh\check{\imath}-f\bar{q}n$ 'the whole,' &c.

515. In literary compositions several words of intensifying power occur, which correspond to the expressions much more, much less, &c. Such are $y\bar{u}$ $\bar{\psi}$, $y\bar{v}$, $m\bar{v}$ $\bar{\psi}$, $m\bar{v}$, $m\bar{v}$ and $hw\bar{a}ng$

Examples.

tsà yū kín pî yū yuèn 止 逐 近 彼 愈 遠 'the nearer this approaches, the farther that recedes.'

k'ú shíng yǐ yuèn ậr yĩ pŏ 去 聖 急 | 而 益 薄 'the farther we depart from the sacred wisdom, the meaner we become.'

yúng chī ḍr mī mîng, sǔ - chī ḍr mī chwáng, 用之而彌明宿之而」壯

'Use it and the brighter it becomes, confine it and the greater it will grow.'

chīn tě pǔ taí yū sá, hwāng yū yên hû! 賃 德 不 待 於 事 况 於 言 |

'True virtue does not expect great deeds, much less does it wait on great words!'

516. Shīn $\mathcal{H}_{\overline{i}}$ is used in a similar way to hwāng, but it is far less common: e. g.—

chĩ chíng kàn shîn, shĩn tsế yiù Miau,

至誠感神矧茲有苗

'The highest integrity influences the gods, much more the *Miau* people.' (Cf. Prémare, *Not. Ling. Sin.* p. 215.)

XII. Exclamatory particles, $\Pi^{\overline{L}}$ yā, A hî, $\Pi^{\overline{L}}$ tsaī, &c.

517. The particles of exclamation are very numerous in Chinese, and they vary according to the style of composition,—its antiquity and its peculiarities of literary and colloquial usage. In the books the exclamatory particles have

an important value. They serve to express in the language, with the written characters, those niceties of construction and expressions of feeling for which sounds and gesticulations are employed in oral communications.

518. Yâ Π and \bar{a} Π are very common. They denote wonder or astonishment: e. g.—

yá ché-sheù shî, pîng pŭ-shi ngò-tsó-ti! 'Ah! this ode was not of my composing!'

They are sometimes joined as one exclamation: e.g.-

ā-yā kīn-yè kið mŭ-liaù tāng! 'Ah! to-night we are again without a lamp!'

519. Hî \sqrt{k} is a particle of exclamation, used most commonly in poetry, in the $Sh\bar{b}-k\bar{n}ng$, and in all ancient poems.

pì mei jîn hî! 彼美人多'that beautiful person!'

520. P'ā 日本 and p'ā 日本 are used to express contempt or defiance, and are often equivalent to 'begone!' e. g.—

p'ī! tū-shí nì pei-heú lûng-kweī! 'Ah! all this confusion behind one's back was all through you!'

p'ī! nì shi tō tá tǐ kwān-ậr! 'Ah! you are indeed a very distinguished officer!'

521. In the plays of the Yuên dynasty, \ddot{u} $\nearrow \Box$ is used as an exclamation or call to an inferior: e.g.—

ŭ-nû fû-jîn pŭ-yaú tî-k'ŭ! 'O woman! do not cry and weep!' wŭ-ti pŭ-shi ngò hiūng-ti? 'Ah! is it not my brother?'

wu-na ki-shū-tǐ! 几那 岩 書的 'Halloa! Postman!'

XIII. Euphonic particles.

522. Particles which may be called *euphonic* are such as serve merely to make a clause sound well. It has been the practice however to denominate *euphonic* many of the particles which we have placed under different classes. It is seldom that a particle is purely euphonic, it generally denotes some *feeling* or *desire* in the mind of the speaker. Many of the words which we call interjections come under this class. In every dialect there are sounds of this kind peculiar to the locality, and when these sounds are expressed in writing, it must be done by some well-known character, which for the time is divested of its ordinary signification, and by the addition of *keù*, 'mouth,' it becomes an interjection or a euphonic particle. This usage has given rise to the euphonic particles of the books, for they were the interjections of ancient times, and indeed some of them remain in use, as such, unto the present hour.

523. Thus $i \not \xi$, $y \not \in \bigcup$, and $h \hat{i} \not \xi$ are said to be euphonic, while they also denote an affirmation (cf. Arts. 447, 448): e. g.—

siàng pǐ-jên ì! 想 从 然 矣 'I imagine it must be so!'

k'ò chī chī ì/ 可知之矣 'it may be known!'

hě-hî! hiuēn-hî! 蒜 务口盲 务 'how splendid! how glorious!'

ān tsiè híng hî! 安 目 幸 | 'happy and fortunate!'

sín yiù yè chè, pŭ - k'ò tsữ yè! (Cf. Arts. 415, 416, and 442.) 信友也者不可絕也

'Faithful friendship may not be dispensed with!'

t' $i\bar{e}n$ - hi \acute{a} k' \acute{o} - $ki\bar{u}n$ y \grave{e} ; tsi \check{o} l \check{u} k' \acute{o} - ts' \hat{z} y \grave{e} ; 天下可均也爵祿可辭也

'One may tranquillize the empire; one may refuse titles and office;'

pě jín kô-taú yè; chūng-yûng pǔ - kô nâng yè!

白刃可蹈也,中庸不可能和

'One may tread on a naked sword; and not be able to keep the "golden mean!"'

524. $Tsa\bar{\imath} \stackrel{\pm 1}{\Box X}$ and $h\hat{\imath}$ $\stackrel{\longleftarrow}{\checkmark}$, are used as euphonic or exclamatory particles, besides being used as interrogative particles: e. g-

fú tsaī yên yè! 📑 | 📑 🍴 'how rich the language!'

hiến tsaī Hwiiî yè! 🏻 📋 ඪ 'how worthy is Hwii!'

kiūn-tsž tō hû tsaī/ 君 子 多 乎 | 'has the great man so many (wants)!'

525. The final particle yè ∤∫ also frequently occurs in the classics of the Chinese as a euphonic particle, and it then serves the purpose of a comma, by separating the characters, which precede it, from the rest of the sentence, as the following examples will show:

kīn yè tsǐ wâng 今 也 則 亡 'the present is,—then gone for ever.'

sāng yè yiù yaī ậr chī yè wû yaī

吾生也有涯而知也無涯

'My life has bounds, but knowledge, forsooth, is boundless.'

sāng kí yè; — sà kweī yè

生 妄 也, 死 歸 也

'Life is a trust; —at death we resign it.'

 $F\bar{u}$ also sometimes goes with $y\hat{e}$, when $y\hat{e}$ is simply euphonic:

mo ngò chī yè fū / 莫我知也夫 'no one understands me!'

526. Lī III is used in novels and in the colloquial style as a euphonic particle or as a particle of exclamation; e.g.—

mŏ shwŏ má, hwân yaú tà lī!

莫 說 罵 還 要 打 哩

'Not to speak of scolding, I shall beat him as well!'

527. Prémare gives these other particles of exclamation: $n\bar{\imath}$ $\downarrow p\bar{\imath}$, $p\bar{o}$ $\uparrow p\bar{k}$, $n\bar{a}$ $\not j p\bar{k}$; and the student will find others in the course of his reading, but they are seldom used, therefore they need not be given here.

ché-kó nī? 這個 | 'is it this?'

k'ò pǔ-shí pō! 可不是波'is it not thus!'

T'iēn-nā! 天 | 'O Heaven!'

528. Iī 印意 'Ah!' tsiē 印盖 'O!' in calling the attention of persons, but sometimes to incite or encourage; and in the Shī-kīng, with other particles, as an exclamation arising from pain: hū-hū! 'oh! alas!' shīn-ì 是 矣 'indeed!' pǔ-hīng 不 | 'unfortunately!' gǒ 品。 'wretch!' or 'hold!' (Lat. nefas!) yū 力太 'ah!' are all found in the classics at the beginning of sentences, but they are rarely to be met with elsewhere.

529. Words formed by the imitation of natural sounds are very numerous in Chinese; e.g. kiaū-kiaū 'the crowing of a cock,' siaū-siaū 'the noise of wind and rain.' (See Dr. Morrison's Dictionary, vol. I., under the radical k'eù ' 'mouth,' for many expressions of a similar kind.)

530. Among the particles which the Chinese denominate $k\hat{u}$ - $ts\hat{z}$ are included all words which do not come under the category of nouns, or under that of verbs,—but simply denote the relations which the nouns and the verbs of the sentence bear to each other,—or the feelings which exist in the mind of the speaker at the time the sentence is uttered. Some of these occur always at the beginning, some always at the end of the sentence; others are found in both positions in different sentences. Some particles affect nouns and single words, some affect the whole clause, others bind together the whole sentence. These facts have been noted under each particle, but there still remains much to be learnt, from careful observation, by the student himself. The following $r\acute{e}sum\acute{e}$ of the particles may, however, be of service.

1. Attributive particles are 的 (411), 之 (412), 者 (415), 所 (421), because they make the words which they affect attributive.

- 3. Affirmative, 是 (440), 然 (441), 也 (442), 焉 (445), 矣 (446), 已 (449), 莫非 and 無非 (452), 難道 (453), 不成 (454).
- 4. Negative, 不 (456), 弗 (459), 勿 (460), 否 (461), 非 (462), 無 (464), 莫 (465), 未 (466), 休, 別, 蘼 (467), 无 (469), 亡 (470), 罔 (471).
- 5. Adversative, 而 (473), 但 (474), 只 (475), 止 (477), 惟, 乃 信 (478).
- 6. Causative, 以 (482), 由 (483), 因 (484), 故, 所 以 (485), 綠, 原 (486), 蓋 (487), 既 (488).
- 8. Illative, 古久, 就 (496), 乃, 則 (497).
- 9. Interrogative, 龍, 乎 (498 and 502—4), 何 (499), 誰, 孰 (500), 耶, 邠 (505), 盍, 否,莫,非 (506), 豊,惡,曷,胡,奚,焉, 安 (507), 幾, 那, 怎 (508), 與, 歟 (510).
- 10. Dubitative, 武, 真 (511).
- 11. Intensitive, 太, 忒 (513), 甚, 絶, 極 (514), 愈, 盒, 彌, 况 (515), 矧 (516).
- 12. Exclamatory, 17, 17 (518), 今 (519), 日走, 日否 (520), 几 (521).
- 13. Euphonic, 矣, 也, 兮 (523), 武, 平 (524), 哩 (525), 呢, 汝, 那 (526), 印意, 惡 (527).

SECT. II. ON SENTENCES.

§. 1. Preliminary remarks.

- 531. The first section of this chapter relates to the various forms and modifications of words and phrases, which enter into the composition of sentences, and these simple formations have been there designated simple constructions; but, beyond the occasional use of the terms sentence, subject, predicate, attribute, and object, nothing has been said of the form of Chinese sentences. And, before examples are given, it will be well to explain the meaning intended by the different terms which will be employed.
- 532. A sentence expresses by the words which it contains not merely a number of separate notions, but a thought, or an assertion, which is ascertained by the relations which those separate notions bear to each other; e. g. 'the wind blows cold to-day' indicates a belief on the part of the speaker; but the words of which this sentence is composed are only the materials with which the thought is expressed; and the same words in a different construction would mean a very different thing, e. g. (1) 'the son loves the father' is one thing, (2) 'the father loves the son' is another. Tâ-fūng is a 'great wind,' but fūng tâ means 'the wind is high.' It is important to bear this in mind, for in the structure of sentences we have no more to do with the words themselves, whether simple or compound, but with the relations which exist between them. Relations which, in some languages indeed, are regulated by the inflections of the words themselves, but in Chinese, and in some other languages, they are shown by the relative position of the words and clauses.
- 533. Every sentence consists of two members only; (1) the subject, or that thing about which something is said or predicated, and (2) the predicate, or that action or attribute which is asserted of the subject. These are indeed sometimes united by a small word, called the copula, which is one of the substantive verbs; but more frequently this is wanting: the principal verb, which contains the predicate, being sufficient of itself to show its relation to the subject. And in Chinese very often the copula is omitted; e.g. t'iën làng 'the weather is cold;' ngò pǔ-haù 'I am unwell.'
- 534. There are, moreover, three relations which may exist in the sentence. First, the predicative relation,—or the relation of subject and predicate simply; secondly, the attributive relation,—or the relation of some qualifying expression to the subject or object of the predicate; and thirdly, the objective relation,—or the relation of the object (or supplemental expression) to the predicate. These terms are used to distinguish clauses in sentences. Thus a clause which contains subject and predicate simply, is a predicative clause, and in this the verb is the principal word. An attribute appended to a subject forms an attributive clause, and in this the adjective or attribute is the chief word. A clause added as an object to the predicate is an objective clause, and in this the object is the principal word, and if it relate directly to the predicate, it is the chief word in the whole sentence. The predicative clause conveys a definite and independent thought, and so may

stand alone; e. g. 'the rose is red.' The attributive clause cannot stand alone, because it does not express a complete thought, but only one of the elements of the sentence; e. g. 'the red rose,' 'the benighted traveller.' And the objective clause too is incomplete when standing alone,—when the object is united to the predicate of a sentence;—e. g. 'black with smoke,' 'withered this morning.' But these three elements of the sentence may be united to form a complete sentence; e. g. 'the red rose withered this morning.'

- 535. The attribute may be, (1) an adjective, (2) the genitive case of a noun, (3) a noun in apposition, or (4) a noun with a preposition; e.g. (1) 'a cold day;' (2) 'the king's horse;' (3) 'William, the Conqueror;' (4) 'a man without bravery;' and (5) a relative clause, which is explanatory, may be regarded as an attribute of its antecedent *.
- 536. The object may be (1) the thing, or person, which the principal verb of the sentence affects, or (2) it may be the circumstances of time, place, manner or causality, which serve to modify the action of the verb.
- 537. The simple sentence consists of only one clause, in which there is a subject and a predicate, but these may be enlarged and modified to a great extent. The subject in Chinese may consist of one word or of many; e. g. $Ti y \tilde{u}$ (1. a. 11) 'the Emperor said:' $fan ta-jin ch\bar{u}$ tau $yiu s\bar{u}$ 'the principles of great men generally are three:' (cf. Art. 541.)
- 538. But sentences in Chinese are seldom simple, they are most frequently complex or compound. A complex sentence is one in which there is a principal clause and one or more subordinate. The subordinate clause stands to the principal clause in one of the following relations, either (1) as its subject, (2) as an attribute of its subject or its object, or (3) as a modification of the whole principal clause. In each case respectively it is a noun sentence, an adjective sentence, or an adverbial sentence.
- 539. A noun sentence in English begins with such words as that, what, who, when or where; and in Chinese it is recognisable by certain marks and the presence of certain particles, as sò 斯 and chè 者 and tǐ 白:(cf. Arts. 411—422.)
- 540. An adjective sentence, which is also an attributive clause, or a relative sentence, is introduced in English by who, which, and words of that class, as that, how, wherein, whither, why, wherefore; and in Chinese it is distinguished by ti, but very often no particle is present.
- 541. Adverbial sentences are such as specify the conditions of time, place, manner or causality. Adverbial sentences of time show (1) the point of time, (2) the duration of time, or (3) the repetition of the circumstance, and are introduced respectively by (1) when, (2) whilst, (3) as often as, &c. Adverbial sentences of place relate to (1) rest in, (2) motion to, or (3) motion from a

^{*} Since writing the above the author has seen an admirable little work on the "Analysis of Sentences" by Dr. Morell, one of Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools, in which the subject is explained and applied to the English language with a clearness sought for in vain in grammatical treatises generally.

place, and in English they are introduced by (1) where or wherever, (2) where or whither, and (3) whence. Adverbial sentences of manner show (1) similarity, (2) proportion, or (3) consequence, and are introduced by (1) as, (2) the comparative degree of the adjective, or as after a negative in the principal clause, or by (3) that, or so that. Adverbial sentences of cause show (1) a reason, (2) a condition, (3) a concession, or (4) a purpose, and in English they are dependent upon the words (1) because, (2) if or except, unless (which=if not), (3) although or however, and (4) that or in order that. The infinitive mood alone is in English frequently used to express a purpose, and it then constitutes a distinct clause.

- 542. Compound sentences differ from complex sentences in that the clauses of which they consist are not mutually dependent, but are co-ordinate, and simply connected, with each other. This co-ordination may be considered as being under three relations. Thus when one clause is supplemental to the other, e. g. 'the ladder fell and the monkey ran away,' it may be called the copulative relation; when one clause is opposed to another, e. g. 'John is clever, but he is not profound,' it may be called the adversative relation; and when one clause contains the reason for the other, e. g. 'his army was disorganised, hence his despair,' it may be denominated the causative relation.
- 543. The copulative relation may exist in three degrees: (1) when equal stress is laid on both clauses,—each clause being distinct from the other; (2) when more stress lies on the second than on the first, as in clauses in English with not only,—but; (3) where the stress increases from clause to clause, as in the figure climax, each clause being introduced by some particle of sequence, first, then, next, finally, &c.
- 544. The adversative relation may exist in two forms: (1) where the second clause negatives the first (in English by not,—but), or (2) when the second clause limits the first; as, 'you may read it, only read it without stammering.'
- 545. The third, or causative relation in co-ordination, may have two divisions: (1) where the latter of two clauses expresses an effect, the former being the moral or physical cause, or (2) where the latter expresses a reason or motive, the former representing the result. This appears to be a simple inversion, which may be effected by the use of different particles of connection.
- 546. Compound sentences often suffer contraction by referring the same subject, the same predicate, and the same object to different co-ordinate clauses. Two or more subjects may go to one predicate; two or more predicates to one subject; two or more objects to one predicate; and several circumstances or limitations may be joined together in the same compound sentence, and may belong to the same word in that sentence.
- 547. Thus much has been said on the analysis of sentences, because without analysis of language in general, we can never arrive at the true analysis of the Chinese, and it is by a ready appreciation of the elementary forms and the scientific terms of grammar that clear, definite, and constant rules can be evolved from the study of Chinese. It is not the knowledge of a vast number of words which constitutes a real knowledge of any language, but it is the

right apprehension of its genius and idiomatic differences, (which is to be attained only by a careful analysis of its forms and constructions,) that will enable the student,—with a fair knowledge of words,—to read, speak, and translate correctly.

§. 2. The forms of the simple sentence.

- 548. A simple sentence may convey (1) a command, (2) a wish, (3) a judgment, i. e. an assertion, (4) a question, or (5) an exclamation. We have therefore to enquire what are the forms in Chinese for imperative, optative, assertive, interrogative, and exclamatory sentences. The imperative sentence will be dealt with first, because the simple force of the verb, without adjuncts, conveys this sense, and there is a close connexion between the imperative and the optative, at least in meaning. In the same way the root or crude form of the Latin verb expresses a command. (Cf. es 'be thou,' ama 'love thou,' and cf. Arts. 223 and 404.) Then after the assertion comes the question naturally, and these are often similar in form. The exclamation is often only to be distinguished from the question by the manner of its enunciation.
- 549. The form of the *imperative sentence* is simple and natural. The simple verb expresses the command, and the subject is generally understood; but when expressed, it stands before the verb and never, as a rule, after it, as it may in the English, 'come thou here;' e. g. laî chê-lì, 'come here,' or nì laî chê-lì, but not laî nì chê-lì. Jù yǐ chāng yên (1. a. 16) 'do you also throw light on the subject;' kwaî kwān-mạn, pǔ yaú tseù-liaù (12. d. 20), 'quickly shut the doors, and let none go forth:' (cf. 12. i. 22.)
- 550. When the subject of an imperative sentence is a proper name, or the designation of a person, and not a mere pronoun, it sometimes stands after the verb; e.g. laî, Yû! (1. a. 13) 'come, Yü!' but the verbs ts'ing in and jâng are used commonly before the subject, when that is expressed; e.g. ts'ing-nì laî chê-lì 'please to come here;' jâng t'ā k'ú pá 'let him go away.'
- 551. The form of the optative sentence differs but little from that of the imperative. It is introduced by a verb which signifies to desire or to wish; e. g. yuén nì pîng-ān 'may you be happy!' The expressions pā-pǔ-tě and hàn-pǔ-tě (cf. Arts. 273 and 395) should be remembered in this connexion. In the following passage in the Sān-kwǒ (litho. p. 13. c. 21—24) we have a noun governed by hàn as a verb; thus, hàn lì pǔ nàng! 'would that my strength were adequate!' or 'would that I were able!' (lit. 'regret strength not able.')
- 552. Every assertive sentence in Chinese consists of a subject which stands first, and a predicate which follows it. Circumstances of time and place may stand before the subject, and circumstances of manner, of cause, and of effect generally stand before the predicate. The subject must be a noun or a word used as such, or it may consist of a sentence used as a noun: (cf. 7. a. 10, 11; 7. f. 15—18; 2. g. 12—16; 8. d. 13—18, which all form subjects.) The subject may be explained, parenthetically as it were, by a word or words in apposition, or by a participial phrase: (cf. 8. o. 16—19; 9. b. 22—27;

- 2. h. 22—24.) The subject may consist of two nouns, the former being in the genitive case, to express the *origin*, cause, or relationship of the latter: (cf. 2. 9. 12—16; 7. b. 29—c. 1; 2. h. 20—26.) The same remarks refer to the predicate when that is a noun.
- 553. The predicate generally requires one object, and sometimes two, to complete it; the first is called the *direct* object, the other the *indirect* object; e. g. ché yǐ-kān-shú lŏ-liaù yĕ-tsż 'this tree has shed its leaves;' k'ò-ì yúng t'ā tsaí-kiā ch'ū-ji (14. a. 16) 'I can employ him in the family to go in and out.'
- 554. Interrogative sentences have various forms in Chinese. Sometimes they are to be distinguished by the particles which are present in them, at other times the position of the clause, and of the words in it, shows the interrogative.
- (1) When the particles are present, if they are final particles, the subject and predicate remain in the same position as they would in an assertive sentence; e. g. nì yiù tûng-tsiên 'you have some cash;' nì yiù tsiên mô? 'have you any cash?' chế yĩ-chế-mà shǐ kān-ts'aù 'that horse eats hay;' chế yĩ-chế-mà shǐ shĩmmô? 'what does that horse eat?' (cf. Arts. 498—509.)
- (2) When no interrogative particle is present, the form of the sentence may show that the sentence is interrogative. Two expressions are enunciated, one positive, the other negative, this leaves the mind in doubt, and shows that an enquiry is being made, just as $t\bar{o}$ -shaù, lit. 'many-few,' give rise to the abstract notion of quantity, and also to a question how many? e. g. $t^*\bar{a}$ tsaî-kiā, lit. 'he is at home,—not at home?'='is he at home?' By a reference to the articles on the interrogative particles the student will obtain many examples of interrogative sentences.
- 555. The forms of the exclamatory sentence scarcely differ at all from those of the interrogative. They are generally introduced by an interrogative particle or some word clearly of the nature of an exclamation. (See the Arts. on the exclamatory particle; and cf. 1. l. 14—17; 11. l. 9—17.)

§. 3. The noun sentence.

- 556. The noun sentence is one which occupies the place of a noun, and in Chinese may consist of a verb and its object; e. g. haî jîn pữ haù 'to injure people is bad.' The particles chè, tĩ, and sò generally mark the noun sentence.
- 557. The verb alone, or with adjuncts of time, may constitute a noun sentence, and be the subject of a sentence; e. g. k'ùng yìn fĩ k'î shí yè (9. 0. 5), lit. 'I fear, to drink is not this time;' Tĩ siēn-sāng k'û shí yaú k'û kiù-liaù (10. 0. 25), lit. 'Mr. Tĩ's going is this, he wished to go long since.' Again, hiŏ ậr shî sĩ chĩ (3. d. 10) is a noun sentence, and the subject to the verb yữ, which follows. Also yiù pâng tsź yuèn-fũng laî (3. d. 19) and jîn pǔ chĩ ậr pǔ-wận (3. d. 29) are noun sentences: (cf. 9. b. 18—27.)

§. 4. The adjective sentence.

558. The adjective sentence is any set of words which explains or qualifies

a noun. A relative clause in English (and in Chinese often a clause in apposition) does this; but generally some particle, as $ti \not\vdash j$, $so \not\vdash j$, or $che \not\vdash k$, throws the whole into the form of an adjective clause, the subject of which is represented by the particle; this makes the adjective sentence often to assume the character of a noun (cf. 3. e. 13. etc.); e. g. $k\bar{q}ng-tqng-ti$ Ti $k\bar{u}ng-ts\dot{z}$ tau-mqn (8. c. 18) is an adjective sentence or relative clause, as it were in apposition to Kwo $k\bar{u}ng-ts\dot{z}$ its antecedent: it means literally, 'the one just waiting for Mr. Ti to arrive at the gate.'

§. 5. The adverbial sentence.

559. Adverbial sentences are such as express the circumstances of time, place, manner, and cause. They are sometimes introduced by particles in Chinese, but frequently they are without any distinctive mark of this kind; e. g. swàn-ki ting-liaù (8. a. 6—9), taû tsż-ji (8. a. 10—12), ji wi-ch'ü (8. a. 13) are three adverbial sentences of time to the principal sentence k'i-laî 'he arose:' tsiû, 'then,' is really not wanted, but in Chinese it is idiomatic to insert it; it sums up, as it were, the three clauses just mentioned.

560. But adverbial sentences of time are often shown by some particle or phrase being present in the sentence; e. g. yǐ-kiến Tǐ kūng-tsž laî-paí (8. c. 4), 'as soon as &c.,' is marked by yǐ-kiến; and clauses beginning with yǐ and a verb will always mark an adverbial sentence of time. Again, hwǔ-kiến (8. e. 28), 'on suddenly seeing,' introduces a similar expression. Phrases beginning with yǐ, 'as soon as,' would sometimes, when followed by then, mark the repetition which is implied in expressions beginning with whenever in English; e. g. yǐ shî hǒ ch'a, tsiú kiàng Yīng hwá, lit. 'one time drink tea, then speak English,' i. e. 'whenever he drinks tea he talks English:' (cf. 8. i. 2; 16. d. 2.)

561. Duration of time is expressed by an adverbial sentence,—by putting shî, 'time,' or shî-kiēn, 'time-interval,' in construction with the sentence; e. g. nì tộng tsaí ché-lì tỉ shî-heú, ngò pǔ-yaú tǔ, 'while you are staying here, I will not read;' Kaū-k'iû k'ān-shî (16. a. 11) 'while Kaū-k'iû was looking on:' (cf. Art. 337.)

562. Adverbial sentences of place may refer to position in or motion to or from a place; e. g. süî-piên taú nà-lì, ngò-t'âng nì k'ú, 'whenever you like to proceed, I will go with you;' ngò pǔ k'àng taú nì tì tì-fāng laî 'I will not go to your place;' ts'âng chê-lì taú nà-kô tì-fāng, ngò pǔ k'ò k'ú, 'I cannot go from hence to that place;' ngò k'ú-tì tì-fāng, nì pǔ k'ò-ì laî, 'where I go you cannot come.' The student will observe that such adverbial clauses require certain words, as ts'âng 'from,' taú 'to,' and the word tì-fāng, 'place,' in construction, just as shî and shî-heú are generally necessary in adverbial sentences of time.

563. Adverbial sentences of manner, which relate to likeness, proportion or effect, are introduced by prepositions or appropriate particles, as jû JII, stang J, stang J, jin J, chaū J, which mean 'as, like as, similar to,

according to, &c.; or by verbs and particles combined, as pi f 'to compare,' $y\bar{u}$ f 'than,' &c.; or causative verbs, as $l\bar{i}ng$ 'to cause,' $p\bar{i}$ 'to give,' &c.: (cf. the adverbs of manner, Arts. 246—251; also-Arts. 211, 213, and 144—150.)

- 564. Adverbial sentences which refer to likeness are such as the following: $t^i\bar{a}$, $siang\ f\hat{u}$ - $ts\bar{n}$, $ts\hat{o}\ s\bar{a}ng$ - \hat{i} , 'he carries on trade, as his father did;' naì pǐ $k^t\bar{u}$ - $k^t\bar{u}\ y\bar{u}\ sh\hat{i}$ - $s\check{u}\ j\hat{u}$ - $ts\hat{z}$, $sh\bar{\imath}$ n $f\bar{\imath}$ - $\hat{\imath}\ y\hat{e}\ (9. l. 15)$, 'but, thus strictly to confine ourselves to the world's customs, would certainly not be right:' (cf. 4. m. 25; 8. k. 12; 9. b. 22; 21. e. 24.)
- 565. Adverbial sentences which relate to proportion, intensity, equality are such as yi-niēn sháng-sheù, piēn tsīn-tsīn yiù wí (10. a. 17), lit. 'one take raise hand, then relish it more and more,' which would seem to make the first clause an adverbial sentence of time (cf. Art. 560), but the sense of the passage would lean rather to the version 'as they drank (or 'the longer they drank') they relished it the more;' t'ā, pŭ jû nì, tŭ-shū-tǐ, 'he is not so learned, as you,' or 'he is not such a scholar, as you.'
- 566. Adverbial sentences which relate to effect are such as are introduced by $pa \not\models \Pi$ 'to take,' $i \not\models I$ 'to use,' ling f 'to cause,' &c.; e. g. che-kó fin sie-tsz, pa ni pa k'ò ta, 'this man writes, so that you cannot read it;' $t'\bar{a}$ kiàng che-yang $t\bar{o}$, ling ngo pa nang kiàng, 'he spoke so much, that I could not speak at all:' (cf. 1. j. 1—8.)
- 567. Adverbial sentences of cause, which relate to the ground or reason, condition, concession, purpose or consequence, require separate treatment, because they are generally dependent upon particles, or words used as such, as $y\bar{\imath}n$ f 'because,' \imath 'by,' $s\bar{\imath}\bar{\imath}$ ff 'although,' $j\breve{\delta}$ 'if,' $tsi\acute{u}$ ff' then,' &c.
- 568. Adverbial sentences which express the ground or reason are sometimes without, and are sometimes accompanied by, distinctive particles; e. g. yīn kiến Kwó shīn ts'îng.. (9. e. 15) 'as he saw Mr. Kwó's deep feeling..;' chế-kó jîn pữ-haù, yīn-weí t'ā má ngò, 'that is a bad man, because he abused me;' nì tsö-ji pữ-laî, ngò tsiú pữ tử-shū, 'I did not read yesterday, because you did not come' (cf. 4. h. 2. and 18). There should be a causative particle present in the protasis, or an illative particle in the apodosis.
- 569. Adverbial sentences which express a condition are sometimes, but not always, introduced by a conditional particle (cf. Art. 265); e. g. pŭ sūng ngò yĭ kweī yâng-tsiên, ngò pŭ pà nì ch'ŭ-k'ú, 'if you do not give me a dollar, I will not let you go;' jŏ-shí t'ā pŭ-tseù, pĭ-tíng tà t'ā, 'if he does not go away, I must beat him;' pŭ tsŏ haù shū, tsiú pŭ-k'ò-ì kiaū t'ā, tŭ-shū-tĭ, 'if he had not made a good book, we could not call him a scholar:' (cf. 4. g. 24—28. and 4. h. 9—14.)
- 570. Adverbial sentences which express concession are nearly always introduced by a particle such as süī 'although;' e. g. süī-jên jû-kīn pŭ-kŭ, heŭ-

laî t'ā k'i tĕ tō, 'although now he does not cry, afterwards he will weep much;' kweī-kwŏ süī tsaí chûng-yûng ár-wán-lī...(23. d. r1) 'although your honourable nation is in the vast ocean twenty thousand miles away;' nì shwŏ-hū süîpién tō, ngò sín-pǔ-tĕ nì, 'however much you promise, I cannot believe you.'

- 571. Adverbial sentences which express a purpose are sometimes introduced by a particle; e. g. tɨn hiaú tɨ i chủng jîn-lận (6. a. 4) 'give practical weight to filial piety and fraternal love, in order to strengthen the relative duties.' But when the purpose is contained in two or three syllables, it may be adjoined without a particle, like the English infinitive when it expresses a purpose.
- 572. Adverbial sentences which relate to consequence would seem to be similar to those under Art. 560, but these express rather the consequence which follows the principal sentence as a cause; e.g. 'he talks, so that he is unintelligible,' contains an adverbial sentence of manner; 'he runs so fast, that he will be sure to get there in time,' contains an adverbial sentence of effect. In this latter case, one clause contains the cause, the other the effect; but in the former case, the second clause simply qualifies the verb 'talks.' Examples of these distinctions in Chinese can hardly be given. So much is done by inference from the sense of a passage, that too subtle a distinction would only mislead. But a careful study of the causative and illative particles will be beneficial, and reference should be made to the exercises in Part III.

§. 6. The complex sentence.

573. The complex sentence differs from the compound sentence in this, that the clauses of which it is composed are mutually dependent. There is in a complex sentence one principal and one or more subordinate clauses, which come under one of the above-mentioned classes, viz. (1) the noun sentence, (2) the adjective sentence, or (3) the adverbial sentence.

Examples.

hiŏ ar shî sǐ chī 'to learn and constantly to dwell on the subject,' (noun s.)

pŭ yǐ yǚ hû? 'is it not a pleasure?' (principal s.) (3. d. 10,—19,—29.)

ì Kī-tsż kweī tsŏ hûng-fàn 'by Kī-tsz restoring the great plan,' (noun s.)

fǎ sheû shing yè 'he gave an example to the sacred sages,' (principal s.)

(2. m. 13: cf. also 8. l. 12. and 9. l. 15—27.)

574. The adjective sentence is an accessory sentence, in apposition frequently to the word which it qualifies; and with the *person or thing*, for which that word is understood to stand, the adjective sentence may be said to be precisely similar to the noun sentence.

Examples.

yǐ-kiến Tĩ kūng-tsž laî-paî 'as soon as he saw Mr. Tĩ coming to call,' (an adverbial s. of time.)

 $tsaù f\bar{\imath} pa\acute{u} y\grave{u} Kw\acute{o} k\bar{u}ng-ts\grave{z}$ 'he hastened to inform Mr. Kwo,' (principal s.)

 $k\bar{q}ng$ - $t\hat{q}ng$ - $t\tilde{i}$ T i $k\bar{u}ng$ - $ts\hat{z}$ $ta\hat{u}$ - $m\hat{q}n$ i who was just then waiting for Mr. T i to arrive at the gate, (adjective s. qualifying $Kw\delta$.)

§. 7. The compound sentence.

575. Compound sentences contain two or more co-ordinate clauses, each being independent of the other, though they are connected either actually by particles or virtually by the sense of the passage.

Examples.

t'iën weī chī túng pǔ nâng kiaí, shíng-jîn chī yên wû-sò-yúng. (2. i. 9.)
naì ch'ǔ tá-fā, yúng weí shíng-sz. (2. l. 20.)
nì yǐ-peī ngò yǐ-chàn, pién pǔ fǔ tiú-ts'z. (10. a. 26.)
sān jîn chĕ-tĕ t'îng-peī tsĭ-kién, Kwó tsiú gān tsó taú. (10. c. 4.)

576. The three states or relations which may subsist in the compound sentence are, (1) the copulative, (2) the adversative, (3) the causative.

Examples.

- (1) tí-sīn yǐ yiù pǔ-gān, kīn yǐ pǔ kàn kiù liû. (9. c. 26.) k'iû liŏ-t'îng nî-shî, shaù túng yǐ ts'àn. (9. d. 9.) kīn hīng yiù yuên, yiú tĕ siāng pēī. (9. i. 4.)
- (2) k² jǐ-yé chī sò sǐ &c. (5. n. 29—0. 30.)
 siaù-tí yǐ pǔ jín yên k'ú, tán chwāng ī-sǔ &c. (9. a. 26.)
 Again in 9. c. 11, where an adversative clause comes in parenthetically, but may be said to be co-ordinate with the previous sentence, which is complex.
- (3) tặn hiaú-tí, ì chứng jîn-lặn. (6. a. 4.)
 sāng-jîn pừ nâng yǐ-jǐ ặr wû yúng, tsĩ pǔ-k'ò yǐ-jǐ ār wû ts aî. (7. a. 10.)
 shǐ kú tsz taú, ì lǐ yū shí. (2. h. 11.)
 wû yǐ wù sź, kú pǔ weî. (2. j. 1.)
- 577. Under the copulative relation a subdivision may be said to exist, which relates to clauses presenting an alternative, as in English clauses beginning with the particles either and or. Hwö \(\frac{1}{12}\) or hwo-che \(\frac{1}{12}\) \(\frac{1}{12}\) and hwan \(\frac{1}{12}\). repeated at the beginning of each clause, mark such sentences.

Examples.

hwân shí tāng chīn, hwân shí tāng shwā?

還是當真一是當耍

'Are you in earnest, or are you joking?'

hwŏ-chè t'ā-laî, hwŏ-chè t'ā sż-liaù, 'either he will come, or perhaps he is dcad.' (Cf. 3. l. 27, where yĭ is used for or, as a connective.)

§. 8. Figures of speech.

578. Under this comprehensive expression much is included, but we purpose noticing only a few of those peculiar forms which in language take this denomination: such as *ellipsis*,—the leaving out of words; *pleonasm*,—

the redundant use of words; antithesis,—the appropriate use of words of opposite significations; and the repetition of a word or phrase to give emphasis to the expression.

579. By the figure ellipsis many expressions in Chinese become intelligible, which appear, at first sight, to be in accordance with no particular rule. Such are the terms $ch\bar{\imath}-i$ (9. f. 12) 'old friends;' pai-sheii 'to make a visit on a person's birthday:' pai-nién 'to pay compliments at the new year;' kaii-laii 'to plead age,' kaii-ping 'to plead sickness' (as a reason for retirement from office).

580. It is a very common thing to leave out the personal pronouns when they are the subjects of sentences, and when no difficulty would arise in supplying them from the context or from the conversation. Pũ-yaú alone might be either 'do not!' i. e. noli, or 'I do not want;' but pũ-yaú chê-kô tũng-sĩ must be, 'I do not want this thing,' and pũ-yaù tũng-sheù must be, 'do not move!'='be quiet!' So also siế-siế 'thanks!' for 'I thank you;' but this expression is similar in the English, 'thank you.'

581. The obscurity which might sometimes veil the meaning of a sentence in Chinese is removed by the redundancy of repeating the same idea by negativing its opposite term: thus, $ng\partial$ yaú k'ú, pǔ yaú tàng, 'I wish to go, and do not wish to stay;' nì yaú shwò chīn, pǔ yaú shwò hwâng, 'do you speak truly, and do not speak falsely;' tsîn-yên k'án-kiến 'I saw it with my own eyes.'

582. The Chinese delight in forming antitheses, for which their language affords great facility, every important attribute and object having its appropriate opposite term. A list of the most common of these will be found in Appendix I. Antithesis occurs frequently in proverbs and old sayings; e. g. yiù t'eû weî, mô wî chīn, 'in front there is dignity, but behind no troops;' and sháng yiù t'iēn-t'âng, hiá yiù Sū Hâng, 'above there is heaven, and below Su-(cheu) and Hang-(cheu):' (cf. 19. i. 11.)

583. Repetition has already been referred to as being a common method of forming words and phrases and for intensifying adjectives and adverbs (cf. Arts. 99 and 136), but it is often merely for the sake of the rhythm that words and syllables are repeated. A few select expressions of this kind may be seen in Appendix I.

584. Almost all the other figures of speech which are used in European tongues are to be found in Chinese. *Climax* is especially common in this language. But it is needless to multiply examples of these figures, for they will easily be recognised by the advanced student.

§. 9. The varieties of style.

585. The differences of style in Chinese authors, and the marks of the period in literary works, are very great and distinct. The language of the most ancient authors is very brief and sententious, while the meaning is pregnant and expressive. There is a majesty and dignity of style, which have never been surpassed by later writers. The style of the King (cf. Part II. pp. 5, 6)

stands foremost in antiquity and sublimity. The Sź-shū, the Lì-kì, the Taú-tě-kīng, the Ts'û-ts'ź, and the Shān-haí-kīng come next in order (cf. Part II. pp. 6, 7), and to these may be added the great commentators and writers of elegant compositions, such as Chwāng-tsż and the Shǐ-tsż, or 'Ten scholars,' mentioned in Part II. pp. 7, 8. To these must be added Máng-tsż, who, though nearly equal to K'ūng-tsż in Chinese estimation as a philosopher, has a diffuse style of composition. Tsó-shí, the author of the Tsó-chuến and the Kwŏ-yû, S̄z-mà-tsiēn and the Ts'aî-tsż, or 'men of talent,' come next, with the later authors, Hán-yú (who lived in the T'âng dynasty), Gaū-yâng Siú, Sû Tūng-pō, Chū-hī, and many others, fragments of whose works are preserved in the Kù-wân yuên kiến (cf. Part II. pp. 14, 36).

587. Gav-yang Siú says: Yên ì tsaí sź, ḍr wạn ì shǐ yên; sź sín yên wạn, tsì k'ú king pǔ-yuèn, 'let the words contain the theme or subject, and let elegant style adorn the words; let there be the subject truthfully, and the words elegantly set down, and the style will not be far from that which is called kīng.' In which passage the four characters 事. 信意 文 sín yên wận contain the marks of the highest style of literary composition.

588. No positive rules can be given for composition, but the length of the $k \hat{u}$, or clauses, should be somewhat diversified. Though clauses of four characters, which form phrases, are frequent in the best authors, the style will be stiff and bald, unless occasionally a clause of five, six, or seven characters be introduced. It is usual to accumulate ideas in an opening sentence, and then to display them separately in the sequence. The admired style of Chinese compositions may be compared to the elegant style of Cicero rather than to the nervous argumentative style of Demosthenes. (Cf. Prémare's Notitia Linguæ Sinicæ, where examples of style will be found.)

APPENDIX I.

words.

List of antit	hetical
ों shāng 'a wholesale merchant.'	買k
賞 shàng 'to reward.'	罰fa
ik shén 'good, virtuous.'	恶, 8
以 sheū 'to collect together.'	昔文 se
首 sheù 'the head.'	胠印
授 sheú 'to give.'	受 sl
sheú 'a wild animal.'	畜 c
This chi 'the beginning.'	糸字 c
是 shí 'it is so,—true.'	非介
是 shí 'yes.'	否f
\mathcal{R} $sh\bar{\imath}n$ 'deep (of water).'	淺 ts
shīn 'to extend the body.'	回 k
身 shīn 'the body.'	神s
ff. shīng 'to ascend.'	『春 k
升 shīng 'to rise,' 浮 feû 'to float.'	汉元 c
成 shing 'to flourish.'	衰
雙 shwāng 'a pair.'	隻。
shán 'to obey.'	逆加
力友 fáng 'to let go.'	以多
而且 fǔ 'happiness.'	禍
fung 'abundant.'	盐水

fú 'rich.'

cù 'a retail trader.' ä 'to punish.' 'bad, vicious.' an 'to scatter abroad.' kiö 'the foot.' heú 'to receive.' chŭ 'a tamed animal.' chūng 'the end.' i 'it is not so,—false.' eù 'no.' sièn 'shallow.' $k reve{u}$ 'to bend the body.' shîn 'the spirit.' kiáng 'to descend.' chîn 'to sink.' shwaī 'to decay.' chĕ 'an individual.' nĭ 'to disobey.' sheū 'to take up.' hó 'misery.' hwāng 'sterile.' 貧 pîn 'poor.'

愛 gaí 'to love.'

f gaú 'proud.'

百更 gáng 'hard.'

寒 hân 'cold.'

打子 haù 'good.'

厚 heû 'thick,—generous.'

壹 hì 'to be glad.'

腎 hiên 'a wise man.'

虚 hū 'empty,—vain.'

hîng 'the form,—substance.'

} hwŏ 'alive.'

i hwüí 'to meet together.'

爺 yê 'the father.'

公 yên 'the banquet.'

友 yiù 'a friend.'

 \mathcal{F} $y\bar{\imath}n$ 'good words and actions.'

肾 $\stackrel{\textstyle \circ}{ } \stackrel{\textstyle \circ}{ } \stackrel$ -darkness,-obscure.

藝丸 jǐ 'hot.'

± kĭ 'fortunate.'

县 kaū 'high.'

差 kaí 'to cover.'

kān 'sweet!'.

放家 kiá 'to marry (of the woman).

對 kiaú 'to teach.'

糸吉 kǐ 'to bind fast.'

kù 'ancient timesa'

A kîn 'birds.'

THE wu 'to hate.'

計 kiēn 'humble.'

前作 juèn 'soft.'

Shù 'heat.'

方 tai or 語 o 'bad.'

蓮 pŏ 'thin,—mean.'

秋 tsiû 'to be sorrowful.'

思 yû 'a foolish man.'

富 shǐ 'solid,—true.'

景/yìng 'the shadow.'

sà 'dead.'

別 pǐ 'to separate from.'

娘 niâng 'the mother.'

唐 sǐ 'a common feast.'

11 cheû 'an enemy.'

kò 'the reward of them' (Budd.).

-light,-clear.'

}自 làng 'cold.'

hiūng 'unfortunate.'

任 tī 'low.'

盟 k'aī 'to open.'

西发 swān 'sour.'

取 tsüí 'to marry (of the man).'

學 hiŏ 'to learn.'

解 kiaì 'to loosen.'

 $\triangle k\bar{\imath}n$ 'the present time.'

置片 sheú 'beasts.'

LE hiūng 'the male (of birds).'

禁 kín 'to forbid.'

k'iŭ 'crooked.' (wān 2.)

kīng 'classic text.'

从 kūng 'public.'

If kũng 'merit.'

k'ūng 'empty.'

霞 kī 'hungry.' (nüì 宣安.)

片 sāng 'raw, green.'

渍 yuèn 'distant.'

土 k'ú 'to go away.'

君 kiūn 'the prince.'

* kwāng 'brightness.'

III i 'the spiritual essence,—the principle which arranges.'

无 lí 'profit or interest.'

liû 'to detain, to keep.'

in to flow, to roam.

202 lo 'to manifest pleasure.'

狂 màng 'fierce.'

FE man 'the outer door.'

奴 nú 'anger.'

宫 pīn 'the guest.'

堂 pǔ 'a man-servant.'

I pàn 'the beginning.'

庭 kw'eī 'to lose.'

principle of $y\bar{\imath}n$.

 $f_{\bar{z}}^{\bar{z}} ts\bar{z}$ 'the female (of birds).'

言车 hiù 'to allow.'

首 chǐ 'straight.'

傅 chuén 'the commentary.'

末人 sz ' private.'

载 paú 'reward.' kwó 清 'fault.'

注: mwàn 'full.'

甸 paù 'satisfied.'

孰 shǔ 'cooked, ripe.'

沂 kín 'near.'

laî 'to come near.'

the vassal.'

目音 gán 'darkness.'

** k'i 'the material essence,—the matter which is arranged.'

pàn 'the original capital.'

涿 chǔ 'to throw away.'

chì 'to stop, to rest in.'

尹 peī 'to express sorrow.'

Regional liang 'gentle, good.'

F hú 'the inner door;' mận-hú=

jìn 'patience.'

+ chù 'the host.'

煩矩 p'í 'a maid-servant.'

末 mu 'the end.'

為 yǐ 'to gain.'

鬼 kwei 'ghost inferior,—the active 油 shîn 'spirit superior,—the active principle of yâng.'

書 kwei 'noble.'

键 kwān 'to look at from below, or from a distance.'

火星 saú 'dry.'

僧 sāng 'religious.'

学. siaú 'to laugh.'

先 siēn 'before.'

亲 sīn 'new.'

信 sín 'to believe.'

拉 sing 'the name of the clan.'

* sing 'natural disposition.'

送 súng 'to give.'

深 súng 'to bid adieu.'

前 sź 'a tutor.'

單 tān 'single.'

會 t'ān 'covetous.'

tán 'simple, moderate.'

Il taū 'a sword with one edge.'

BE wan 'to ask.'

未 wî 'not yet.'

मेहि chāng 'to stretch the bow.'

音 chāng 'the art of counting.'

信 ch'ang 'a female musician.'

E ch'ang 'long.'

' ch'ang 'eonstant.'

HE ch'ang 'the leader in the song.'

重月 chaū 'morning.'

E tsién 'mean.'

后台 lîn 'to look at from above, or while approaching.'

冷器 shǐ 'damp, humid.'

台 sŭ 'secular.'

k'ŭ 'to cry.'

é heú 'behind or after.'

舊 kiú 'old.'

新 î 'to doubt.'

K shí 'the name of the family.'

習 sǐ 'practice.'

爱 sheú 'to receive.'

ij yîng 'to welcome.'

計 tû 'a pupil,—a disciple.'

雙 shwāng 'double.'

iiên 'liberal,—not avaricious.'

)農 nûng 'strong.'

劍 k'ién 'a two-edged sword.'

答tă 'to reply.'

i i 'already.'

मुंगि shì 'to relax the bow.'

程 chîng 'the art of weighing and measuring.'

優 yiū 'a male performer.'

有只 twàn 'short.'

髓 pién 'changeable.'

和 hó 'the singer who replies.'

製 mú 'evening.'

B片 chě 'to ascend.'

渥 ch'î 'slow.'

智 chí 'prudent.'

恒 chīn 'true.'

成 chîng 'to perfect.'

ik chîng 'sincere.'

If ching 'straight.'

I chíng 'upright.'

truthful.'

⊞ ch'ŭ 'to go out.'

tsaù 'early.'

妻 ts i 'wife.'

焦 tsiaū 'sad.'

借 tsié 'to borrow.'

疾 tsǐ 'hastily.'

利青 tsǐ 'to collect.'

tsiè 'elder sister.'

淮 tsín 'to advance.'

浩 ts'īng 'clear.'

日青 tsîng 'serene weather.'

左 tsò 'the left hand.'

4 tsó 'to sit.'

if ts'ûng 'to follow after.'

米貝 tsū 'coarse.'

I tsù 'ancestor.'

黄 tsān 'honourable.'

存. tsận 'to preserve.'

彼 pì 'that.'

快 kw'eí 'quick,'= 凍 sŏ.

景 yû 'foolish.'

假 kià 'false.'

頁 paí 'to ruin.'

篇 wei 'deceitful.'

The wei 'crooked, awry.'

siê 'depraved.'

传 ning 'a flatterer.'

 $\bigwedge ji$ 'to enter in.'

日免 wan 'late.'

姜 tsǐ 'concubine.'

樂 lö 'joyful.'

濃 hwân 'to pay again.'

遲 ch'î 'slow,'=徐 sú 'leisurely.'

盐文 sán 'to scatter.'

九未 meí 'younger sister.'

退 tüí 'to retreat.'

)蜀 chǔ 'muddy.' (hwàn 涅.)

yù 'rainy weather.'

右 yiú 'the right hand.'

立 lǐ 'to stand.' (kì 起.)

違 weî 'to oppose.'

新日 sí 'fine.'

孫 sān 'descendant.'

单 pǐ 'mean.'

wâng 'to lose.'

tsà 'this.'

C C 2

Examples of antithesis in sentences.

yiù ts'aî wí - pĭ yiù maú, yiù maú wí - pĭ yiù ts'aî, 有才未必有貌有一未必有

'There may be talent without beauty, and there may be beauty without talent.

marí ch'īng k'î - ts'aî, ts'aî fú k'î maú,

貌稱其オー副其

'His beauty equals his ability, and his talents enhance his beauty.'

pŭ chē shīn, shǐ pǔ ch'ung k'eù, 衣不遮身食不充口

'Not clothing to cover his body, nor food to fill his mouth.'

 $h\hat{o}$ - $ch\hat{u}$ $p\tilde{u}$ - $m\tilde{i}$, $sh\bar{\imath}n$ - $ch\hat{u}$ $p\tilde{u}$ - $s\hat{\imath}n$?

何處不覔甚處不尋

'Where have I not looked, where have I not sought?'

yaú - k'ĭ wû lüí, yaú - yên wû - yù,

要洗無淚,要言!語

'He wished to weep, but he had no tears,—to speak, but he had no words.'

weí ngò sà, ngò pǐ weí - t'ā wâng, $t^{\epsilon}\bar{a}$

為我死, 」 必為他亡

'As he died for me, I must sacrifice myself for him.'

sháng-t'iēn wû - lú, jǐ - tí wû mặn,

上天無路人地工門

'If he would rise to heaven there is no way, or enter earth there is no door,' ='he cannot escape.'

ni yi - $y\hat{e}n$ $ng\hat{o}$ yi - $k\bar{u}$. ni yi - $ch\bar{u}ng$ $ng\hat{o}$ yi - $ch\hat{u}n$. 你一言我」句 你一鍾」」盞

'They are well matched at gossipping.' 'They are well matched at drinking.'

yĭ pwán - ậr ts'ź, yĭ pwán - ậr k'ạng,

一半見骸一! 兒肯 'He half refuses, and is half willing.'

Examples of repetition of characters.

yuèn-yuèn ts'iaû kién 漠 | 唯見 'to look at from a long distance.' gaī-gaī t'ûng-k'ǔ 哀 | 楠 哭 'to weep bitterly.'

yǐ-kú-kú tū t'îng-tē liaù — 有 | 都聽的了'I heard every word.'
yǐ-pú-pú mò sháng-shān laî — 步 | 摸上山來' step by step,
feeling his way, he ascended the mountain.'
kīng-kīng tǐ shườ 堅 | 白言文' to speak very softly.'
t'îng-t'îng tāng-tāng 停 | 當 | 'in a fixed and proper manner.'
ch'è-ch'è yĕ-yĕ 山 | 拽 | 'to carry off by force.'
mîng-mîng pĕ-pĕ 明 | 白 | 'very clearly understood.'
twān-twān chíng-chíng 滿 | 正 | 'elegant and correct.'
ts'ì-ts'ì chìng-chìng 齊 | 整 | 'precisely arranged.'
hwān-hwān mei-mei 昏 | 日末 | 'dull and bewildered.'
sù-sù t'aū-t'aū 鬂 | 印】 | 'to reiterate vociferously.'

Phrases formed upon a similar principle. pŭ-chī pŭ-kiŏ 不知 | 曼 'he knows not nor perceives.' pŭ-mîng pŭ-pě 末 明 | 口 'quite unintelligible.' yuén-sāng yuén-sà 願生 | 死 'ready to live or die.' k'í-sāng k'í sà 氣 片 | 万 'desperately angry.' k'ò-hán k'ò-naù 可 恨 | 愉 'extremely annoying.' sž kî sž kiaù 似 計 i j 'apparently very clever.' pwán k'aī pwán yèn 生 開 | 掩 'half revealed and half concealed.' pwán jîn pwán kweì 生人 | 鬼 'half man and half ghost.' lúng-shîn lúng kwei 弄 油 | 鬼 'to play the ghost.' lúng-laî lúng kú弄來 | 夫 'to be eager at business.' hû-yên hû-yù 古月 言 | 黃丑 'to talk very foolishly.' má-tá má-siaù 黑大 | 小 'to abuse all alike.' tá-tsiù tá-jǔ 大 滴 | 次 'a great feast.' k'iaû-mû k'iaû-yáng 喬 模 + 樣 'in a haughty manner.' kŏ-mận kŏ hû 各門 | 戶 'each in his own way.'

kǐ-sīn kǐ-k'ù 尼辛 | 若 'greatly afflicted.'
yiù-p'îng yiù-kú 有题 | 據 'there is full proof of it.'
mǔ-yuên mǔ-kú 沒原 | 故 'there is no ground at all for it.'
mǔ-tsûng mǔ-yìng 沒歸 | 景 'without trace or shadow.'

Examples of synonymes used in phrases.

haú-kǐ gaí-ts'īng 好潔愛清'to love cleanliness.'

t'âng kān kúng k'ù 同甘共若'alike happy and troubled.'

tsān pīn kíng kế 寧賓敬客'to honour and respect guests.'

hwān-t'iēn hì-tí 歡天喜地'to rejoice exceedingly.'

shī-t'iēn mîng-tí 藝天盟地'to swear by heaven and earth.'

shī-pâng tsiù-yiù詩朋酒友'friends of the Muse and the wine.'

paú ch'eû sǔ yuén 報 鮮雪窓'to revenge an insult.'

lîng yâ lí ch'ì 伶牙佩齒'clever at speaking.'

hû sź hván siàng 耕思氤氲地'to think confusedly.'

jû kī sź h'ǒ如饞似渴'like hunger and thirst.'

Select idiomatic phrases.

tsáng t'eû lú weì 藏 頭 露尾 'to hide the head and expose the tail.'
niên maí lǐ shwaī 年 邁 力 哀 'years increased, strength decayed.'
shān chin haì tsó 山 珍 海 錯 'sumptuous fare.'
ts ū ch'a t'ān fán 螽 茶 淡 飯 'tasteless tea and rice,—poor fare.'
meî-laî yên-k'ú 眉 來 眼 去 'glancing now and again.'
meî-hwā yên-siaú 眉花 眼 笑 'arched eyebrows and laughing eyes.'
hwaî-ts'aî paù-hió 懷 才 抱 學 'devoted to learning.'
ts'ing-t'iēn pē-jǐ 清 天 白 目 'in open day.'
nì-shāng ngò-liâng 你 商 我量 'let us mutually advise.'
nì-tūng ngò-sī 你 東 | 西 'we are mutually opposed.'

pě-jǐ hǐ yè 白日 黑 夜 'from noon to midnight,—day and night.'

tsǐ-sà pǎ-hwǒ 七 灰 八 活 'more dead than alive.'

tsǐ-pạn pă-lì 七本八利 'the profit just saves the capital.'

pě-lîng pě-lí 百 信 百 세 'very shrewd and clever.'

Elegant phrases, idiomatic and poetic.

Shī-yūn 詩云 'the Shī-kīng says,' or Shū-yūn 書 | 'the Shū-kīng says.'

Tsž yž 🕂 📋 'for K'ùng-tsž (Confucius) says.'

jún-pǐ 津 út. 'to moisten the pencil,—to commit to writing.'

keū-mîng 鉛 名, lit. 'to fish for a name,—to hunt for a reputation.'

mŭ-sūng 巨 姿, lit. 'with the eye to accompany,—to watch until out of sight.'

yìn-kǐ the yi, lit. 'to drink tears,—to weep bitterly.'

shǐ-yên 🛊 🚔, lit. 'to eat words,—to break a promise.'

Confucius denied himself in respect of four things, which are referred to in the following expressions:

wû-î ∰ 'he did not bind himself to his own opinion.'

wû-pǐ | , 'he did not hold any thing to be of necessity absolute.'

wu-kú | 古 'he was not perverse and obstinate in his views,'

wû-ngò | \$\frac{1}{2}\$ 'he held no feelings of private interest.'

T'aî-yuên 泰元, lit. 'the exalted origin of things,—heaven.'

Trung-kirin 東 君, lit. 'the prince of the east,—the sun.'

T'ai-yang 大 陽 'the great light,—the sun.'—Sol.

Pě-k'ü 白 崎, lit. 'the white colt,—the morning.'—Aurora.

I-hô 義 禾口 'the charioteer of the sun.'—Phaethon.

T'iēn-hán 天 根 'a star of evil omen.'

Siēn-hô 紅 口可 'the charioteer of the moon,' also called Chāng-ngò.

Ti-kūng 帝 吕 'the rainbow,' also called Ti-tūng 中

Nù-î 女 夷 'the Spirit presiding over flowers.'

Wâng-hwā 王 化 'the royal flower,'—the Maù-tān 性 丹.

Tsāng-yiù 海友 'the water-lily,' Lûng-yá 龍牙 'the lǐ-chī 荔枝.'

 $Li-ch\bar{\imath}-n\hat{\imath}$ | I, I, lit. 'slave of the $Ii-ch\bar{\imath}$ ' = the $lilng-y\hat{e}$ ('fruit').

chuī-fūng 追風 'pursuer of the wind,' or chuī-tién 追電 'a pursuer of the lightning,'-a name for a fine horse.

shān-kiūn 山 君, lit. 'prince of the mountains,—the tiger.'

The 'sheep' is called Jeū-maū 柔 毛; the 'goat,' jèn-làng 蠹 郎; the 'swallow,' t'iēn-nù 天 女; the 'parrot,' yên-niaù 言 鳥; the 'tortoise,' 之 夫 Hiuēn-fū; the 'ant,' hiuēn-kū; the 'vine,' Hūng-yiù 紅 友, hiuên 『東支 'ink.' Fūng-wí 鳳 味 or lûng-wí 龍 尾 'an inkstone.' Lǐ-wí 更 | 'the pencil.' Yǔ-pàn 玉 版 'paper.' Shū-t'îng 殊 廷 'palace of the immortals.' Shi-kiā 世 家 'a man of rank.' Yŭ-shǐ 玉食 'choice food.' Nién-sheù 黔 首 a term for 'men.' Yŭ-t'ì 玉 豐 'a very sāng 登 | 'an old man.' Tá-tsiāng 大匠 or chǐ-chǒ 執 器 f 'a worker in wood.' Ts'iāng-kwei 翔貴 'to fly after honours.' Ts'iuên-taî 泉臺 'a sepulchral mound,—a tomb.' Shên-p'ang 順 美 'a bier.' Wǔ-kù 均 古文 'dead.' Wang-yang 上 端 'free from disease.' Tsiēn-lī k'ū 千里 駒 is 'a fine young horse.' Shi-chūng-hù 詩 中 虎 is 'a poet.' Jîn-chūng-lûng 人 中龍 is 'an illustrious man.' Kiaì-yù-hwā 解語花 and hwā-kién-siū 花見羞 and yáng-liú-chī 楊 柳 枝 mean 'a beautiful woman.' Sz-tsz-tsó 狛 子座 'the seat of Buddha.' Kiủng-fà 跨 髮 is 'a barren soil.' Kweī-tīng 貴 鼎 'something very precious.' Wù-tìng-shǐ 五. 鼎食 'the five kinds of flesh.'

APPENDIX II.

A list of Chinese family names (Pĕ-kiā síng) arranged according to the Radical characters.

(Rad. 1-44.)

T 775000	- 14 cz	I El Davi	C- HI MEA	0. #: N=
I Ting	21 作 5%	41 D Paū	61 唐· Trang	
2万 Wán	22 倪 Nî	42 王 Kwāng	62 日兪 Yú	82 宋 Súng
3 L Sháng	23 傅 Fú	43 阜 Chŏ	63 喬 Kiaû	83 K Mi
4 fr. Kiū	24 /諸 Chû	44 \ Pŭ	64 單 Chên	84 崇 Tsūng
5 1 Mi	25 元 Yuên	45 Tiến	65 嚴 Yên	85 官 Kwān
6 于 Yŭ	26 充 Ch ūng	46 E Yin	66 國 Kwŏ	86 🖹 Siuēn
7 井 Tsìng	27 党 Tàng	47 危 Weî	67 1	87 臣 Hwán
8 \bigwedge Jîn	28 A Tsiuên	48 盾 Shé	68 壽 Sheú	88 🔁 Kūng
9 11 Kiû	29 🔆 Kūng	49 厲 Lí	69 夏 Hiá	89 🛓 Tsaì
10 A Lîng	30 <u>氧</u> , Ki	50 未又 Chŏ	70 大 Tá	90 家 Kiā
11 Jy Yàng	31 H. Jin	51 古 Kù	71 奚 Hî	91 峇 Yûng
12 TH Chúng	32 }☆ Yè	52 史 Sè	72 1 Yaû	92 宿 Sŭ
13 任 Jin	33 🏠 Làng	53 司 Sā	73 美 Kiāng	93 寇 Keú
14 伊 1	34 凌 Lîng	54 吉 Kǐ	74 姫 🌃	94 富 Fú
15 1 Wù	35 Tiaū	55 日 Hiáng	75 婁 Leû	95 ‡ Fūng
16 代 Fŭ	36 別 Piě	56 吳 Wu	76 A. Kung	96 駅 Wei
17 何 Hô	37 利 Lí	57 呂 <i>Lù</i>	77 式 Máng	97 尚 Sháng
18 余 Yû	38 劉] Liû	58 周 Cheū	78季Ki	98 尤 Yiu
19 1英 Heû	39 紫 Laû	59 禾口 Hô	79 F系 Sān	99 尹 Yin
20 俞 Yû	40 街 Keū	60 咸 Hiên	80 宇 Yù	100 居 Kil

101 <u>用</u> K"й	128 作 Tu	155 JE Ch'an	182 年 Yŏ	209 H Hwă
102 屠 Tu	129 Tsûng	156日寺 Shî	183 樊 Fân	210月泰 Trậng
103 L Shān	130 存态 Tě	157宴 Yén	184 韓 Kiuên	211 構 Mwàn
104 📛 Ts'în	131 基 Hwei	158 景 King	185 榮 Lwân	212)雅 Pân
105 崔 Ts uī	132 / Shín	159 景 Paú	186 區大 Gaū	213) [Tân
106 和 Kî	133 慕 Mú	160 图 Ki	187 🖐 Pú	214 / / 美 Pŭ
107 巢 Ch'aû	134 應 Yîng	161 # Ts'aû	188 K Wù	215鳥 Wū
108 左 Tsò	135 懷 Hwaî	162 Tsāng	189 文 Ch'a	216
109 II Wa	136 大 Kō	163 朱 Chū	190 段 Twán	217 肯包Hiung
110 [II] Pā	137 戎 Jûng	164 李 Lì	191 月 Yīn	218 The Yen
111 首市 Sā	138成 Ch'îng	165 H Tú	192 🗒: Mù	219 牛 Niau
112席Si	139 成 Tsi	166 抗 Hâng	193 E Maû	220 4 Д Мй
113 當 Ch'ang	140戴 Taí	167 R Tung	1947 Shwiii	221 JK Ti
III4 T Kān	141房 Fâng	168 校 Sūng	195 🞢 🛚 Kiāng	222 JJ Hû
115 Ping	142 包 Hú	169 🛧 Lîn	196 } <u> </u> Ch'î	223 \(\overline{Wang} \)
116康Kang	143	170 柏 Pě	197 H Wang	224] Pān
117 庾 Yû	144支 Chī	171 查 Chā	198 } Kĭ	225] 康 K'û
118 A. Liên	145 TX Ching	172 村可 Kō	199 沃 Wǔ	226 更 Chīn
119 DE Lian	146 敦 Gan	173 kliù	200 yr Chin	227 🔡 Kān
120 唐Kwàng	147 文 Wān	174此 Ch'aî	201) Shā	228 🛱 Fù
121 Hung	148 Fing	175 桂 Kwei	202 } Hûng	229 E Ning
122 BL Hûng	149 於 Yū	176 桑 Sāng	203 Pù	230 H Tiên
123 張 Chāng	150方在 Shī	177 村豆 Wân	204 淳 Shận	231 A Shīn
124号虽 Kiâng	151 B Ch'āng	178 M Liâng	205 } H Wān	232 H Pĭ
125 壹/ Pāng	152 明 Mîng	179 本母 Meî	206) F Yiu	233 Pě
126 後 Heú	153 易 f	180 村島 Yàng	207 注 Chán	234 Hwâng
127 徐 Sû	I 54	181 KK Yâng	208]易 Tang	²³⁵ 皮 Pî

236	1				1
238 Lû 265 266 287 187 292 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 1	236 益 Yǐ	263 常工Hûng	•	317 廈 Yû	344 赵 Yuĕ
239	237 成 Shíng	264索 Sŏ	291 # King	318 県 Yûng	345 趙 Chaù
240	238 虚 Lû	265 \$ \$ Chūng	292 + 1. Chwāng	319 律T Wei	346路 Lú
241	239 FE Siāng	2 66 King	293 辛 Sīn	320 衡 Hậng	347 車 Ch'ē
242	240 瞿 K'û	267 繆 Mia	294 莫 Mú	321 夏 Yuên	348 東子 <i>Hiēn</i>
243 1 Tsù 270 四 297 其 Yē 324 褚 Chèù 351 農 Nûng 244 祝 Chò 271 翁 Ung 298 葛 Kö 325 解 Kiaì 352 通 Tũng 326 計 Ki 353 逢 Fûng 327 六 Hù 354 連 Liên 354 連 Liên 355 逸 Lö 356 ৄ Chèn 356 ৄ Chè 357 ৄ Piè 359 升 No 333 □ Tân 359 升 No 333 □ Tân 360 白 Taī 359 升 No 333 □ Tân 360 白 Taī 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	241 A Shĭ	268 羅 Lô	295 👯 Hwa	322 💢 K'iû	349 轅 Yuên
244 R Chō 271 翁 Ung 298 葛 Kō 325 解 Kiaì 352 通 Tūng 326 計 Kī 353 逢 Fūng 326 計 Kī 353 逢 Fūng 326 計 Kī 353 逢 Fūng 327 計 Hū 354 連 Liên 354 連 Liên 354 連 Liên 355 录 Lōên 328 雲 Tsē 355 录 Lōēn 328 雲 Tsē 355 录 Lōēn 356 建 Chrī 356 建 Chrī 356 建 Chrī 356 建 Chrī 357 毫 Prēn 359 那 Nō 333 這 Trēn 359 那 Nō 333 這 Trēn 359 那 Nō 359	242 J K'î	269 ‡ Yâng	296 👬 Wán	323 非 Peî	350 \(\frac{1}{2}\); Sīn
245	243 荊且 Tsù	270 尹 才	297 葉 Yě	324 褚 Ch'ù	351 農 Nûng
246 禹 Yù 273 翟 Ti 300 蒙 Mûng 327 許 Hù 354 連 Liên 247 秋 Tsiu 274 耿 Kàng 301 前 Kwéi 328 訾 Tsē 355 逯 Lò 248 秦 Tsin 275 間 Wận 302 蒲 P'a 329 詹 Chēn 356 遲 Chi 249 程 Ching 276 晶 Niè 303 蒼 Tsāng 330 談 Tan 357 邊 Piēn 250 穆 Mū 277 古 Ha 304 蓋 Kai 331 諸 Chū 358 邢 Hing 251 空 Kūng 278 胥 Sū 305 逢 P'ūng 332 謝 Sié 359 那 No 252 竇 Teū 279 能 Nậng 306 蔚 Wei 333 譚 Tan 360 部 Taī 253 章 Chāng 280 臧 Tsiàng 307 荻 Tsai 334 谷 Kū 361 兩 Pìng 255 堂 Chū 282 舒 Shū 309 黃 Siaū 335 豐 Fūng 362 召 Shaū 256 符 Fa 283 艾 Gai 310 薄 Pò 337 貢 Kūng 364 都 Hī 257 管 Kwàn 284 古 Jūi 311 薊 Kī 338 賈 Fei 365 郜 Kau 259 藉 Tsī 286 古 Miaū 313 蓲 Lân 340 貢 Pī 367 彫 Lâng 260 米 Mī 287 元 Fán 314 隹 Līn 341 賈 Kiā 368 夾 Kiā 261 厥 Mī 288 컵 Maū 315 夔 Kwéel 342 超 Lai 369 卻 Hī	244 前兄 Chŏ	271 翁 Ung	298 葛 Kŏ	325 角军 Kiaì	352 M Tung
247 Tsiu 274 Kàng 301 m Kwéi 328 雪 Tsē 355 远 Lò 248 秦 Tsin 275 m Wạn 302 m Pù 329 詹 Chēn 356 远 Chù 249 程 Chùng 276 m Niề 303 줊 Tsāng 330 談 Tân 357 邊 Piên 250 程 Mũ 277 古 Ha 304 蓋 Kaí 331 諸 Chū 358 Thìng 251 空 Kung 278 写 Sū 305 遂 Pùng 332 謝 Sié 359 케 Nò 353 章 Chāng 279 能 Nāng 306 詩 Wei 333 譚 Tân 360 計 Taī 253 章 Chāng 280 成 Tsāng 307 談 Tsāi 334 谷 Kū 361 八 Pìng 254 童 Tung 281 臺 Tai 308 蔣 Tsiāng 335 豐 Fūng 362 급 Shaū 255 竺 Chū 282 釬 Shū 309 ்	245 前录 Lŭ	272習Sĭ	299 董 Tùng	326 👬 Kí	353 逢 Fûng
248 秦 Ts'in 275 間 Wận 302 浦 P'â 329 詹 Chēn 356 遲 Ch'î 249程Ch'îng 276 ඛ Niê 303 蒼 Ts'āng 330 談 Tân 357 邊 Piēn 250 穆 Mũ 277 古月 Hâ 304 蓋 Kaí 331 茜 Chū 358 邢 Hìng 251 空 K'ūng 278 胥 Sū 305 逢 P'ûng 332 謝 Siê 359 那 No 353 章 Chāng 280 藏 Ts'āng 306 蔚 Wei 333 譚 Tân 360 部 Taī 253 章 Chāng 280 藏 Ts'āng 307 读 Ts'ai 334 谷 Kū 361 內 Pìng 254 童 Tâng 281 臺 Taî 308 蔣 Tsiàng 335 豐 Fūng 362 召 Shaú 255 堂 Chũ 282 舒 Shū 309 蕭 Siaū 336 貝 Pei 363 前 Y8 256 答 Fû 283 艾 Gai 310 薄 Pŏ 337 貢 Kūng 364 部 Hī 257 管 Kwàn 284 古 Jūi 311 嵐 Kī 338 豊 Fei 365 部 Kau 259 薪 Tsi 286 古 Miaû 313 蓝 Lân 340 貢 Pī 367 部 Lâng 260 米 Mì 287 元 Fán 314 隹 Lîn 341 賈 Kiù 368 夾 Kiù 261 糜 Mî 288 캋 Maû 315 變 Kw'ei 342 稻 Lai 369 谷 Hī	246禹 Yù	273 翟 Ti	300 蒙 Mang	327 青牛 Hù	354 連 Liên
249程Ching 276	247 末片 Ts iu	274 [大 Kàng	301 前則 Kw eí	328 \ Tsē	355 .
250 1	248秦 Ts în	275 🖺 Wận	302 7 P'a	329 詹 Chēn	356 遲 Ch'î
251 全 K ung 278 写 Sū 305 後 P ûng 332 詞 Sié 359 那 Nó 252 寶 Teú 279 能 Nộng 306 詩 Wei 333 譚 T ûn 360 計 T aī 334 谷 Kū 361 丙 Pìng 254 童 T ûng 281 臺 Taî 308 講 T siàng 335 豐 F ūng 362 百 Shaū 255 竺 Chū 282 舒 Shū 309 講 Siaū 336 貝 Pei 363 有 Y v 256 符 F û 283 ᅻ Gai 310 博 P v 337 頁 Kúng 364 希 T Hī 257 管 Kwàn 284 六 Jūi 311 魚 Ki 338 貴 Fei 365 告 Kau 259 詫 T sǐ 286 廿 Miaû 312 註 Sié 339 賀 Hó 366 示 Hō 366 元 Hō 36	249程 <i>Ch'îng</i>	276 II Niĕ	303 蒼 Ts āng	330 談 Tân	357 邊 Piēn
252	250 穆 Mŭ	277 古月 Hû	304 蓋 Kaí	331 青苔 Chū	358 Hing
253 章 Chāng 280 臧 Ts' âng 307 蒙 Ts' ai 334 谷 Kǔ 361 丙 Pìng 254 童 T' âng 281 臺 Taî 308 蔣 Tsi àng 335 豐 Fūng 362 百 Shaú 255 竺 Chǔ 282 舒 Shū 309 蕭 Siaū 336 貝 Pei 363 有 Y8 256 符 Fû 283 艾 Gai 310 博 P8 337 頁 Kúng 364 希 Hī 257 管 Kwàn 284	251 Kung	278胥 Sū	305 逢 P'ûng	332 吉射 Sié	359 JI Nô
254 童 Tûng 281 臺 Taî 308 蔣 Tsiàng 335 豐 Fũng 362 百 Shaú 255 应 Chữ 282 舒 Shū 309 萬 Siaū 336 貝 Pei 363 有 Y8 256 符 Fû 283 艾 Gaí 310 博 P8 337 頁 Kúng 364 和 Hī 257 管 Kwàn 284	252 竇 Teú	279 自己 Nang	306 尉 Wei	333 言覃 Tan	360 台门 T'aī
255 25 25 25 25 25 25 2	253章 Chāng	280 KTs ang	307 菜 Tsaí	334 🏠 Kŭ	361 丙 Ping
256 符. Fû 283 艾 Gaí 310 博 Pŏ 337 頁 Kúng 364 都 Hī 257 管 Kwàn 284 廿 Jüí 311 前 Kí 338 賈 Feí 365 告 Kau 258 管 Kièn 285 ゼ Hwā 312 读 Sié 339 賀 Hó 366 郝 Hō 259 薪 Tsǐ 286 廿 Miaû 313 蓝 Lân 340 頁 Pí 367 即 Lâng 260 光 Mì 287 ゼ Fán 314 隹 Lín 341 賈 Kiù 368 夾 Kiù 261 厥 Mî 288 ᅶ Maû 315 變 Kwéê 342 賴 Laí 369 卻 Hǐ	254 董 Tang	281 臺 Taî	308 其 Tsiàng	335 # Fūng	362 7 Shaú
257 管 Kwàn 284 片 Jüí 311 風 Ki 338 貴 Fei 365 告 Kau 258 管 Kièn 285 花 Hwā 312 读 Sié 339 賀 H6 366 郝 Hō 259 薪 Tsǐ 286 甘 Miaû 313 蓝 Lân 340 賣 Pí 367 即 Lâng 260 米 Mì 287 花 Fán 314 隹 Lín 341 賈 Kiù 368 夾 Kiù 261 糜 Mî 288 ᅶ Maû 315 變 Kwéi 342 超 Laí 369 卻 Hǐ	255 <u>F</u> Chŭ	282 舒 Shū	309 計: Siaū	336 E Peí	363有『Yŏ
258 當 Kièn 285 花 Hwā 312 读 Sié 339 賀 Hó 366 那 Hǒ 259 薪 Tsǐ 286 计 Miaû 313 蓝 Lân 340 賞 Pí 367 即 Lâng 260 光 Mì 287 花 Fán 314 隹 Lín 341 賈 Kiù 368 夾 Kiù 261 厥 Mî 288 ᅷ Maû 315 變 Kwéî 342 超 Laí 369 卻 Hǐ	256 答. Fû	283 +4. Gaí		337 貢 K úng	364 希 用ī
259 367 18 286 18 Miaû 313 18 Lûn 340 19 19 19 19 19 19 19 1	257 Kwàn	284 1 Jüí	311 副 Ki	338 賽 Fei	365 # Kau
260 米 Mi 287	258 Kièn			339 知 用6	I
261 康 Mî 288 学 Maû 315 變 Kw'eî 342 雅 Laí 369 卻 Hǐ	259 茅莊 Т8й	286 ++ Miaû	313 14. Lân	340 蕒 Pí	367 N Lâng
	260米Mi			341 賈 Kià	368 夾『 Kia
262 紀 Kì 289 石 Jû 316 蘇 Sū 343 赫 Hě 370 享 Kwŏ		288 1 Maû	315 W Kw'eî	342 類 Laí	369 召队 Hǐ
	262 Kì	289 KI Jû	316 孫 Sū	343 清 <i>Hĕ</i>	370享 Kwŏ

37 1 香『 Tū	385 閔 Min	399雙Shwāng	413 雇員 Kú	427 Mâ
372 罗 68	386 智 Yên	400 宮崖 Lî, Hî	414養Yàng	428 黄 Hwâng
373 例 Tseū	387 K'ŭ	401 🚍 Yûn	415 饒 Jaû	429 X Lî
374島『Wù	388 Kwān	402 日 Lüî	416 馬 Mà	430 <u>H</u> ě
375 登 Táng	389 首攵 Hàn	403 € Hŏ	417	431 <u>黑</u> 旦 <i>Tă</i>
376 算 Chíng	390 KT Yuèn	404 苗F Kin	418 肾各 Lŭ	432 鼓 Kù
377 豐 Fũng	391 陰 Yīn	405 章 Kùng	419 高 Kaū	433 齊 Tsî
378 麗『 Lǐ	392 『東 Ch'în	406 草匊 Kiŏ	420 W Yŏ	434 K Ch'ì
379 金 Kīn	393 [新 T'aû	407 韋 Weî	421 委皇 Weí	435 监奇 I
380 红 T'eù	394 陸 Lŭ	408 草韋 Han	422 A Yû	436 育己 Lûng
381 £ ₩ Neù	395 『易Yâng	409 首召 Shaû	423 魯 Lù	437 龍 P'âng
382 ETs'iên	396 全 Lûng	410 J頁 Hiáng	424 恒 Paù	438 <u>详</u> Kūng
383鍾Chūng	397 『鬼 Wei	411須 <i>Sū</i>	425 A Fúng	
384長Ch'ang	398 Fix Yūng	412 資 頁 Yên	426 製和 K'iŏ	

Note—64 is also called shen. 305 should have 'grass' above it. 314 should have 'door' with 'grass' above it. 389 should have 'a door' over it.

The following are family names of two syllables.

Ch'âng-sān (384, 79).
Chên-yû (64, 6).
Chū-kŏ (331, 298).
Chūng-lì (383, 400).
Chúng-sān (12, 79).
Gaū-yâng (186, 395).
Hiá-heû (69, 19).
Hĕ-liên (343, 354).
Hiēn-yuên (348, 349).
Hwâng-fù (214, 228).
Kūng-yê (29, 32).
Kūng-sān (29, 79).
Kūng-yâng (29, 269).
Lîng-hû (34, 222).
Mű-yûng (133, 91).

 $P\check{u}$ - $y\acute{a}ng$ (214, 395). $Sh\bar{\imath}n$ -t'u (231, 102). $Sh\acute{a}ng$ - $kw\bar{a}n$ (3, 85). $Sh\acute{q}n$ - $y\acute{u}$ (204, 6). $S\bar{z}$ -k' $u\bar{u}$ (53, 251). $S\bar{z}$ - $m\grave{a}$ (53, 416). $S\bar{z}$ -t'u (53, 128). $T\acute{a}$ - $ch\acute{o}$ (70, 50.) T'dn-t' $a\^{i}$ (213, 281). $Ts\bar{u}ng$ - $ch\acute{i}ng$ (84, 145). $T\bar{u}ng$ - $f\bar{u}ng$ (167, 148). $Y\grave{u}$ - $w\acute{q}n$ (80, 147). $W\acute{q}n$ - $f\grave{i}n$ (275, 8). $W\acute{a}n$ - $s\acute{z}$ (2, 21). $W\acute{e}i$ -ch'i (96, 356).

5 3/3 3/3 390

The numbers refer to the previous list.

APPENDIX III.

A list of the dynasties, the emperors, and the nien-hau.

I. Sān-hwâng = f; 'the Three emperors.'

Under this title are included the names of six persons, whose history is pure myth, but whose names ought to be known to the Chinese student.

1. Pw an-kù 盤 古 (v. Part II. p. 104). 2. Tiēn-hwang 天 | *.
3. Ti-hwang 坦 | . 4. Jin-hwang 人 | . 5. Yiù-ch au 有 巢. 6.
Süi-jîn 嫁 人.

These rulers are said to have reigned myriads of years, and to have invented all the ordinary arts of life.

II. Wù-tí T ithe Five emperors.' [B. C. 2852-2204.]

1. Fǔ-hī 伏羲 (115). 2. Shîn-nûng 神農 (140). 3. Hwâng-tí 黄帘 (100). 4. Shaù-hau 少昊 (84). 5. Chuen-hiĕ 嗣 頂 (78). 6. Tí-kǔ 帝嚳 or 告 (78). 7. T'âng-tí Yau 唐 | 堯 (102). 8. Yû-tí Shận 廣 | 舜 (50).

Of this early period tradition alone renders an account. Eight sovereigns ruled, and instituted many useful methods of providing for the wants and comforts of their subjects. Ploughing, fishing, writing, keeping records of events, and the best modes of governing mankind formed the subjects of their invention. During these times $K^{\epsilon}a\bar{\imath}-f\bar{\imath}ing\ f\hat{\imath}\iota$, on the $Hw\hat{\imath}ng-h\hat{\imath}\iota$ in $H\hat{\imath}-n\hat{\imath}an$, was the metropolis. The first cycle began in the 61st year of $Hw\hat{\imath}ng-t\hat{\imath}\iota$.

III. Hiá-chaū 夏 南广the Hia dynasty.' [B. C. 2205—1767.]

1. Tá Yù 大 禹 (2205—8). 2. Tí K'ì | 股 (2197—9). 3. T'aí

^{*} The characters $hwang^a$, $wang^b$, ti^c , t^*ai^a , tsu^a , tsu^a , $tsung^a$, and some others will not be repeated frequently in this list. The numbers in brackets give the date of the commencement and the length of each reign.

[°]皇 b王 °帝 d太 °祖 f宗

IV. Shāng-chaū 南 草川 'the Shang dynasty.' [B. C. 1766—1122.]

V. Cheū-chaū 周 朝 'the Cheu dynasty.' [B. C. 1122-249.]

1. Wù-wâng 武 王 (1122. 7). 2. Ch'îng-wâng 成 | (1115. 37). 3. Kāng-wâng 康 | (1078. 26). 4. Chaú-wâng [日 | (1052. 51). 5. Mǔ-wâng 穆 | (1001. 55). 6. Kúng-wâng 共 | (946. 12). 7. I-wâng 懿 | (934. 7). 8. Hiaú-wâng 孝 | (909. 15). 9. I-wâng 夷 | (894. 16). 10. Lî-wâng 厲 | (878. 51). 11. Siuēn-wâng 盲 |

(827. 46). 12. Yiû-wâng 幽 | (781. 11). 13. Pîng-wâng 平 | (770. 51). 14. Hwân-wâng 村 | (719. 23). 15. Chwāng-wâng 村 | (696. 15). 16. Lî-wâng 臺 | (681. 5). 17. Hwüî-wâng 惠 | (676. 25). 18. Sīang-wâng い | (651. 33). 19. Kìng-wâng 臣 | (618. 6). 20. Kwāng-wâng 臣 | (612. 6). 21. Tīng-wâng 定 | (606. 21). 22. Kiēn-wâng 部 | (585. 14). 23. Lîng-wâng 亞 | (571. 27). 24. Kìng-wâng 豆 | (544. 25). 25. King-wâng 亞 | (519. 44). 26. Yuên-wâng 元 | (475. 7). 27. Chīng-tīng-wâng 豆 定 | (468. 28). 28. Kaū-wâng 安 | (440. 15). 29. Weî-lī-wâng 元 | (375. 7). 32. Hiên-wâng 元 | (368. 48). 33. Shīn-tsīng-wâng 恒 禹 | (320. 6). 34. Nàn-wâng 赤艮 | (314. 59). 35. Tūng-cheū-kiūn 東 周 君 (255. 6).

During this period several great men flourished, whose names and works have come down to the present time. Such was Wận-wâng, 'the prince of letters,' who at the end of the Shang dynasty had been imprisoned for his upright conduct. In confinement he wrote the Yž-kīng or 'Book of changes,' and was afterwards liberated through the intercession of a lady whom his son (afterwards Wù-wâng, the first monarch of the Cheu dynasty) had sent to the emperor. Wù-wâng and his brother Cheū-kūng were both eminent men of letters. Laù-tsż, the founder of the Tauist sect, K'ùng-tsz (Confucius) (B. C. 519), and Mạng-tsż (Mencius) were all born during the Cheu dynasty. The doctrines taught by these worthies of antiquity were called wâng-taú, 'the royal doctrines,' a term which is equivalent to the term "philosophy" in Europe. The country was divided into many petty states in these times. At one time there were 125, at another they were reduced to 41. The terms Chenkwo Hi and Lǐ-kwo Ji were the designations of these 'contending' or 'confederate' states.

VI. Tsin-chaū 秦 회 'the Tsin dynasty.' [B. C. 249-246.]

1. Chwāng-siāng wâng 計 襲 王 (249. 3).

VII. Heú Tsín chaū 有矣 | | 'the Latter Tsin dynasty.' [B.C. 246—202.]

1. Chì Hwâng-tí 11 | (246. 37). 2. Ar-shí Hwâng-tí (209. 7).

Ch'i Hwang-ti was the most celebrated ruler China ever had. He built the great wall, and destroyed all existing records, as far as he could do so, and put many of the learned to death, because he feared their influence to incite the people to rebellion. He was undoubtedly a great monarch, his power extended throughout China, and he called himself the 'First emperor.'

VIII. Hán-chaū)草 草用 'the Han dynasty.' [B. C. 202—A. D. 25.]

1. Kaū-tsù 高 | (202. 8). 2. Hwii-ti 惠 | (194. 7). 3. Lù-heū 吕 后 (187. 8). 4. Wận-ti 文 | (179. 23). 5. Kìng-ti 景 | (156. 16). 6. Wù-ti 武 | (140. 54). 7. Chaū-ti 吕 | (B. C. 86. 13). 8. Siuēn-ti 宣 | (B. C. 73. 25). 9. Yuên-tī 元 | (B. C. 48. 16). 10. Ch'îng-ti 元 | (B. C. 32. 26). 11. Gaî-tī 哀 | (B. C. 6. 6). 12. Pîng-tī 平 | (A. D. 1. 5). 13. Jû-tsż yîng 清 子 製 (A. D. 6. 17). 14. Hwaî-yàng-wàng 資售 場 | (A. D. 23. 2).

IX. Tũng Hán 東 洋 'the Eastern Han dynasty.' [A. D. 25—221.]

 1. Kwāng-wù 光 武 (25. 33).
 2. Mîng-tí 明 | (58. 18).
 3.

 Chāng-tí 章 | (76. 13).
 4. Hô-tí 和 | (89. 17).
 5. Shang-tí 勇 |

 (106. 1).
 6. Gān-tí 安 | (107. 19).
 7. Shán-tí 川 | (126. 19).
 8.

 Chūng-tí 神 | (145. 1).
 9. Chě-tí 賞 | (146. 1).
 10. Hwân-tí 本 | (147. 21).
 11. Lîng-tí 誠 | (168. 22).
 12. Hiến-tí 獻 | (190. 31).

At the end of this dynasty the empire was divided into 'Three kingdoms,' $Sh\check{u}$, $We\hat{\imath}$, and $W\hat{\imath}$.

X. Heú Hán 後 美 'the Latter Han.' [A. D. 221-265.]

1. Chaú-li tí 日召 交り | (221. 2). 2. Heú-tí 往 | (223. 42).

XI. Tsin-chaū 晋 草川 'the Tsin dynasty.' [A. D. 265—317.]

XII. Tung Toin Ti the Eastern Tsin.' [A. D. 317-420.]

I. Yuên-ti 元 | (317. 6). 2. Mîng-ti 明 | (323. 3). 3. Ch'îng-ti 成 | (326. 17). 4. Kāṇg-ti 康 | (343. 2). 5. Mǔ-ti 穆 | (345. 17).

6. Gaī-tí 哀帝 (362. 4). 7. Ti-yǐ 帝 实 (366. 6). 8. Kièn-wận 篇 文 (371. 2). 9. Hiaú-wù 孝 武 (373. 24). 10. Gān-tí 安 | (397. 22). 11. Kùng-tí 恭 | (419. 1).

The literary degree of Siú-ts'aî was introduced A. D. 286.

XIII. Pě Sũng # 'the Northern Sung.' [A. D. 420-479.]

 1. Kaū-tsù 高 | (420. 3).
 2. Shaù-tí 小 | (423. 1).
 3. Wận-tí 文 | (424. 30).
 4. Wù-tí 武 | (454. 10).
 5. Fi-tí 廢 | (464. 1).

 6. Mîng-tí 明 | (465. 8).
 7. Tsāng-wù-wâng 蒼 武 王 (473. 4).

 8. Shán-tí 川 | (477. 2).

XIV. Ts'î-chaū 齊 車 the Tsi dynasty.' [A. D. 479—502.]

 1. Kaū-tí 高 | (479. 4).
 2. Wù-tí 武 | (483. 11).
 3. Mîng-tí

 明 | (494. 5).
 4. Tūng-hwān-heú 東 昏 侯 (499. 2).
 5. Hô-tí

 禾印 | (501. 1).

XV. Lidng-chaū 漢 草川 'the Liang dynasty.' [A. D. 502-557.]

 1. Wù-tí 武 | (502.48).
 2. Kiên-wận 賞 文 (550.2).
 3. Yuên-tí 文 | (552.3).

 tí 元 | (552.3).
 4. King-tí 敬文 | (555.2).

About this time the people began to use chairs for seats. Wù-ti became a Buddhist monk, and observed the rules of the order.

XVI. Chin-chaū 『東草月 'the Chin dynasty.' [A. D. 557—589.]

1. Kaū-tsù 高 | (557. 3). 2. Wận-tí 文 | (560. 7). 3. Fi-tí 廢 | (567. 2). 4. Siuēn-tí 宣 | (569. 14). 5. Heú-chù 後 主 (583. 6).

XVII. Süî-chaū 『香 草川 'the Süy dynasty.' [A. D. 589—620.]

1. Kaū-tsù 高 | (589. 16). 2. Yâng-tí 場 | (605. 13). 3. Kùng-tí-yiú 恭 | 侑 (618. 1). 4. Kùng-tí-t'ûng | | 侗 (619. 1).

XVIII. Tang-chaū 声 회 'the Tang dynasty.' [A. D. 620—907].

1. Kaū-tsù 百 | (620. 7). 2. Taí-tsūng 大 | (627. 23). 3. Kaū-

XIX. Heú Liâng 後 梁 'the Latter Liang dynasty.' [A. D. 907—923.]

1. T'ai-tsù 大 | (907. 6). 2. Liâng-chù-tiên 梁 主 損 (913. 10).

XX. Heú T'âng 往 其 'the Latter T'âng dynasty.' [A. D. 923—936.]

 1. Chwāng-tsūng 引 | (923. 3).
 2. Mîng-tsūng 引 | (926. 8).
 3.

 Mîn-tí 浸 | (934).
 4. Fî-tí 浸 | (934. 2).

XXI. Heú Tsín 的 管 "the Latter Tsin dynasty." [A. D. 936—947.]
1. Kaū-tsù 高 | (936. 8). 2. Ch'ŭ-ti 出 | (944. 3).

XXII. Heú Hán 後 漢 'the Latter Han dynasty.' [A. D. 947—951.]

1. Kaū-tsù 高 | (947. 1). 2. Yîn-tí [雲 | (948. 3).

XXIV. Sūng-chaū 宋 朝 'the Sung dynasty.' [A. D. 960—1127.]

1. T*aî-tsù 大 | (960. 16). 2. T*aî-tsūng 大 | (976. 22). 3. Chīn-tsūng 巨 | (998. 25). 4. Jîn-tsūng 仁 | (1023. 41). 5. Yīng-tsūng 丘 | (1064. 4). 6. Shîn-tsūng 面 | (1068. 18). 7. Chĕ-tsūng 哲 | (1086. 15). 8. Hwüī-tsūng 預 | (1101. 25). 9. Kīn-tsūng 金大 | (1126. 1).

XXV. Nan Sūng 🛱 🛧 'the Southern Sung.' [A. D. 1127—1280.]

 1. Kaū-tsūng 高 | (1127. 36).
 2. Hiaú-tsūng 孝 | (1163. 27).
 3.

 Kwāng-tsūng 光 | (1190. 5).
 4. Nîng-tsūng | (1195. 30).
 5.

 Lì-tsūng 里 | (1225. 40).
 6. Tú-tsūng 更 | (1265. 10).
 7. Kùng-tsūng 武前 | (1276. 2).
 9. Ti-pīng

 市 西 (1278. 2).
 (1278. 2).

XXVI. Yuên-chaū 元 却 'the Yuên dynasty.' [A. D. 1280—1368.]

1. Shí-tsù 世 | (1280. 15). 2. Ch'ing-tsūng 成 | (1295. 13). 3. Wù-tsūng 武 | (1308. 4). 4. Jîn-tsūng 仁 | (1312. 9). 5. Yīng-tsūng 式 | (1321. 3). 6. T'aí-tíng-tí 泰 定 | (1324. 5). 7. Ming-tsūng 明 | (1329. 1). 8. Wận-tsũng 文 | (1330. 3). 9. Shận-tsũng 則 | (1333. 35).

XXVII. Mîng-chaū 明 朝 the Mîng dynasty.' [A. D. 1368—1644.]

1. T^*ai -tsù 大 | (1368. 30). 2. $Ki\acute{e}n$ - $w\acute{q}n$ -ti 建 文 | (1398. 5). 3. T^*ai - $ts\ddot{u}ng$ 大 | (1403. 22). 4. Jin- $ts\ddot{u}ng$ 七 | (1425. 1). 5. $Siu\ddot{e}n$ - $ts\ddot{u}ng$ 壹 | (1426. 10). 6. Ying- $ts\ddot{u}ng$ 贡 | (1436. 21). 7. King- $ts\ddot{u}ng$ 贡 | (1457. 8). 8. $Hi\acute{e}n$ - $ts\ddot{u}ng$ 贡 | (1465. 23). 9. $Hia\acute{u}$ - $ts\ddot{u}ng$ | (1488. 18). 10. $W\dot{u}$ - $ts\ddot{u}ng$ 武 | (1506. 16). 11. $Sh\acute{t}$ - $ts\ddot{u}ng$ 世 | (1522. 45). 12. $M\ddot{u}$ - $ts\ddot{u}ng$ | (1567. 6). 13. $Sh\acute{t}n$ - $ts\ddot{u}ng$ | (1573. 47). 14. $Kw\ddot{a}ng$ - $ts\ddot{u}ng$ | (1620. 1). 15. $H\bar{\iota}$ - $ts\ddot{u}ng$] (1621. 7). 16. $Hwa\acute{\iota}$ - $ts\ddot{u}ng$ | (1628. 16).

XXVIII. Tá-ts ing-chaū 大 清 草川 'the Tá-ts ing dynasty.'
[A. D. 1644—1862.] .

1. Shí-tsù-chāng 世 | 章 (1644. 18). 2. Shíng-tsù-jîn 聖 | 仁 (1662. 61). 3. Shí-tsūng-hiện | | 意 (1723. 13). 4. Kaū-tsūng-shận 高 | 純 (1736. 60). 5. Jîn-tsūng-jiú 仁 | 睿 (1796. 25). 6. Taú-kwāng 道 光 (1821. 30). 7. Hiện-fūng 咸 豐 (1851. 9). 8. Tūng-chī 通 洽 (1860).

APPENDIX IV.

NIEN-HAU. THE

(1.) List of the characters occurring in the niên-haú, arranged alphabetically.

音 chāng 'luminous.' E chāng 'splendid.' 肯 ch'ang 'constant.' Ech'ang 'extensive.' HZ chaū 'bright.' 名單 chè 'large, wide.' thi chì 'beginning.' 至 chí 'extreme.')台 chí 'ruling.' The chi 'the utmost.' 赤 chǐ 'carnation.' in chīn 'true.' TF ching 'conquering.' F hang 'success.' 盲 chīng 'virtuous.' The ching 'aiding.' chîng 'perfect.' F ching 'upright.' Ty ching 'regulating.' Et hī 'prosperity.' Till ching 'pure.' 垂 chüî 'extending.' 孝 hiaú 'pious.'

) 是 chận ' pleasant.' the chung 'middle' or 'second.' 重 chûng 'renewed.' fû 'charm.' fu 'assistance.' 而日 fǔ 'happiness.' # fung 'affluent.' If fung 'omen of good.' ‡ fúng 'affluent.' 安 gān 'peace.' 藥 hāng 'adjusting.' 名的 heú 'second.' heú 'hunting.' 意 hī 'pervading.' (意 hī 'rejoicing.' 重 hī 'bliss.'

hiên 'complete.' 裂頁 hién 'illustrious.' hīng 'flourishing.' il hiún 'instruction.' 禾 hô 'peace.' 无日 hô 'harmony.' 河 hò 'the river.' 頂 hûng 'vast.' hûng 'vast.' } H. hûng 'vast.' 1 hwá 'reforming.' 蕾 hwâng 'yellow.' 皇 hwâng 'emperor.' hwüī 'excellent.' m hwüí 'united.' 義 í 'justice.' 搖 í 'correct.' f jîn 'humane.' $\int j \hat{\imath} n$ 'man.' 即 k'aī 'opening.'

kān 'sweet.' 康 kang 'firm.' 於 'arranging.' 启文 kì 'instructing.' t ki 'extreme.' 豆 kiā 'increasing.' 匙 kiā 'stag.' 直方 kiên 'firm.' 区 kién 'controlling.' 耳 kién 'establishing.' | 暂 paù 'precious.' | t'aí 'extreme.' 暑 king illumined.' investigating.' | 本 p'îng 'peace.' 農 k'ing 'good.' 君 kiūn 'princes.' \vec{k} 'residing.' 默 kùng 'honouring.' | sháng 'superior.' | 帝 tí 'ruler.' ## kùng 'uniting.' 韓月 kwān 'to see.' ** kwāng 'brightness.' | † sheú 'receiving.' 唐 kwàng 'vast.' kweī 'tortoise.' 成 kwŏ 'kingdom.' 前曹 lì 'ceremony.' li 'heavenly signs.' 唐洪 lîn 'stag.' 绝 lŏ 'joy.'

語 lú 'manifest.' i happiness.' 龍 lûng 'dragon.' 『 Lûng 'glorious.' K mîn 'people.' 明 mîng 'bright.' o iř 'inheritance.' 級 süī 'tranquil.' 年 niên 'year.' ning 'peace.' Ik pàn 'origin.' 保 paù 'protecting.' 泰 t'aí 'vast.' p'ù 'general.' | | shán 'obedient.' | 茶習 shaù 'continuing.' 計 tí 'earth.' 丰福 shě 'directing.' JX sheu 'taking.' 壽 sheú 'aged.' 那見 shí 'behold.' shîn 'divine.' shīng 'ascending.' # shîng 'ascending.' | tsĕ 'dwelling.' I shing 'sacred.'

子置 shwüì 'good omen.' sì 'royal seal.' 象 siáng 'elephant.' # sien 'first.' 肯 siuēn 'extending.' 斯 sŏ 'restoration.' 武 süí 'year.' माने sź 'succession.' 大 tá 'great.' 答 tāng 'ascending.' 道 taú 'reason.' 言居 t'iaû 'regulating.' 天 t'iēn 'heaven.' In ting 'security.' 元 ting 'fixed.' tsě 'plan.' 載 tsaí 'containing.' v tsán 'praising.' 計載 tsiâng 'felicitous.' 成 shing 'abundant.' 首直 tsie 'partition.'

ff. tsið 'noble.'	月号 ts'ź 'bestowing.'	雅 yaù 'glory.'
書 tsīng 'azure.'	if t'ung 'thorough.'	延 yên 'spread.'
清 tsīng 'pure.'	t'ûng 'same.'	炎 yên 'luminous.'
清青 tsìng 'quiet.'	系元 t'ung 'complete.'	yīng 'replying.'
初 tsū 'beginning.'	立門 twān 'upright.'	而右 yiú 'assistance.'
前乍 tsú 'blessings.'	鳥 ű 'a crow.'	子象 yú 'prepared.'
[这 tsūng 'general.'	++ wán 'myriad.'	yûn 'clouds.'
式 tsūng 'ancestor.'	文 wận 'literary.'	Ji yűn 'revolving.'
tsûng 'revered.'	H. wù 'five.'	T yuên 'beginning.'
約 tsùng 'general.'	ik wù 'military.'	yūng 'harmony.'
肾苔 tū 'all.'	以易 yâng 'vast.'	末 yùng 'eternal.'

Note.—All these characters are significant when they are present in the designation of a year or a reign, and the meanings here attached to them are intended to guide the student in rendering such designations into English. In some cases the translation of the character will not suit the English expression, and some words are used figuratively, or they refer to a well-known story. The expression generally runs in the usual grandiloquent phraseology of the Chinese, and intimates that "Peace and prosperity have arisen;" that "Blessings are going to be universally diffused;" or that "All things are beginning again to prosper."

The following list of the *niên-haû*, in which they are arranged according to the English alphabet, will be of immense service to the student of Chinese history. The absence of the native characters will be of little consequence, as the names of the emperors, the dynasties, and the years of the cycle are given, and one of these is generally mentioned by native authors who use the niên-haû.

(2.) List of the niên-haú arranged alphabetically.

Niên-haú.	Dura- tion.	Emperor.	Dynasty.	Year of the cycle.	B.C.	A.D.
Chāng-hô	2	Chāng-tí	Hán	tīng-haī		87
Chāng-wù	2	Chaú-lĭ-tí	Shŭ-Hán	kāng-tsž		221
Ch' âng-sheú	2	T'iēn-heù	T'ang	jîn-shîn		692
Ch $\hat{a}ng$ - $g\bar{a}n$	4	T'iēn-heù	T'âng	sīn-ch'eù		701
Ch'âng-king	4	Mŭ-tsīng	T'ang	sīn-ch'eù		821
Ch $\hat{a}ng$ $-h\bar{\imath}ng$	4	Mîng-tsũng	Heú-T'âng	kāng-yîn		930
Chè-tũ	6	$Y\bar{\imath}ng$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	Hiá	tūng-yiù		1057
Chì-yuên	6	Chaū-tí	Hán	<i>นุ</i> รั-พร์	86	0.
Chì-kién-kwŏ	5	Wâng-màng	Hán	kì-sź		9
Chì-kwāng	4	T'aí-wù-tí	Wei	kiă-tsž		424
Chí-tě	4	Ch'ang-chîng-kūng	Chîn	kweī-maù		583
Chí-tě	2	Sĭ-tsūng	T'ang	pìng-shīn		756
Chí-taú	3	Chīng-tsīng	Súng	yĭ-wí		995
Chí-hô	2	$J \hat{\imath} n$ - $t s \bar{u} n g$	Súng	kiă-wù		1054
Chí-p'îng	4	$Y\bar{\imath}ng$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	Súng	kiă-shīn		1064
Chí-níng	I	Chû-yùng-tsĭ	$K\bar{\imath}n$	kweī-yiù		1213
Chí-yuên	31	Shí-tsù	Yuên	kiă-tsż		1264
Chí-yuên	6	Shán - tí	Yuên	vř-kweī		1335
Chí-tá	4	$W\dot{u}$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	Yuên \	$w\hat{u}$ - $sh\bar{\imath}n$		1308
Chí-chí	3	$Y \bar{\imath} ng$ -ts $\bar{u} ng$	Yuên	$s\bar{\imath}n$ - $yiù$		1321
Chí-hô	3 I	T'aí-tíng-tí	Yuên	$w\hat{u}$ -shîn		1328
Chí-no Chí-shán	3	Wan - $ts\bar{u}nq$	Yuên	kāng-wù		1330
Chí-shạn Chí-chíng	28	Shán-tí	Yuên	sīn-sź		1341
Chi -ching $Ch\bar{\imath}$ - $u\bar{\iota}$		Tá-tí	Wil	vù-wù		238
Chīn-yuên	13	Tí-liáng	$K\bar{\imath}n$	kweī-yiù		
$Ch\bar{\imath}ng$ - $h\hat{o}$	3	Wù-tí	Hán	kì-ch eù	92	1153
Chīng-kwān	4	T aí- $tsar{u}ng$	T'āng	$t\bar{\imath}ng$ - $ha\bar{\imath}$	92	627
Chīng-yuên	23	Tě-tsūng	T'âng	virg-nai vi-ch'eù		785
Chīng-yiú		Siuēn-tsūng	$K\bar{\imath}n$	kweī-yiù		
Ching-yiu Chīng-mîng	4 6	Chù-t`ièn	Heú-Liâng	vĭ-haī		1213
Ching-hwān		$Ts\hat{u}ng$ - $tsar{u}ng$	Hiá	jin-wù		915
Ching-shing	13	Yuên-tî	Liang	jîn-wu jîn-shīn		1102
	3	Hiaú-wân-tí	Weí			552
Chîng-mîng Chîng-kwāng	I I	Yiú-chù-liậng	$P\breve{e}$ - $Ts\hat{\imath}$	pìng-shîn		476
	_			tīng-yiù		577
Chîng-gān	5	Chāng-tsūng	Kīn Môn m	pìng-shîn		1196
Chîng-hwá	23	Hién-tsūng	Mîng	yĭ-pìng		1465
Chíng-chì	9	Chữ-fâng	Weî Weî	$k\bar{a}ng$ - $sh\bar{\imath}n$		240
Chíng-yuên) 4	Chù-maû	.,	kiă-sii		254
Ching-ming	2	Ch'ang-ching-kūng	$Ch \hat{\imath} n \ We \hat{\imath}$	tíng-wù		587
Ching-p'ing	I	T'aí-wù-tí		sīn-maù		451
Chíng-chì	4	Siuēn-wû-tí	Wei	kiă-shīn		504
Ching-kwāng	5	Hiaú-mîng-tí	Wei	$k\bar{a}ng$ - $ts\hat{z}$		520
Ching-t'ùng	14	$Y \bar{\imath} ng$ - $ts \bar{\imath} ng$	Mîng	$ping$ - $sh\bar{\imath}n$		1436
Chíng-hô	7	Hwüī-tsūng	Súng	sīn-maù		1111
Chíng-tá	8	$Gaar{\imath}$ - $tsar{\imath}ng$	$K\bar{\imath}n$	kiă-shīn		1224

Niên-haú.	Dura- tion.	Emperor.	Dynasty.	Year of the cycle.	B.C.	A.D.
Chíng-tĕ	8	$Ts\hat{u}ng$ - $tsar{u}ng$	Hiá	tíng-wí		1127
Chíng-tĕ	16	$W\dot{u}$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	$M\hat{\imath}ng$	pìng-yîn		1506
Chíng-lûng	6	Tí-liáng	$K\bar{\imath}n$	yiù-tsż		1156
Chüî-kùng	4	T'iēn-heù	T'âng	yĭ-yiù		685
Chūng-yuên	6	Kīng-tí	Hán	jín-shîn	149	"
Chũng-yuên	2	Hwāng-wù-tí	Hán	pìng-shîn	1-45	56
Chũng-p'îng	6	Lîng-tí	Hán	kiă-tsż		184
$Ch\bar{u}ng$ - $h\bar{\iota}ng$	1	Hô-tí	$Ts\hat{\imath}$	$s\bar{\imath}n$ - $s\acute{z}$		501
Chūng-tá-t'ūng	6	Wù-tí	Liâng	kì-yiù		529
Chūng-tá-t'ûng	I	Wil-ti	Liâng	pìng-yîn		546
Chūng-hīng	1	Chù-lâng	Wei	sīn-haī		531
Chūng-hô	4	$H\bar{\imath}$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	T'ang	sīn-ch'eù		881
Chūng-t'ùng	4	Shí-tsù	Yuên	kāng-shīn		1260
Chûng-hô	1	Hwiiī-tsūng	Sing	พน-รนั		1118
Chûng-hī	24	$H\bar{\imath}ng$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	Liaû	jîn-shīn	1	1032
Fŭ-shing-chîng-taú	4	Yīng-tsūng	Hiá	kweî-sź		1053
Fúng-hwâng	3	Chù-kaù	Wu	jîn-shîn		272
Hán- g ã n	2	Shán-tí	Hán	jî-wù		142
Heú-yuên	7	Wan-tí	Hán	wù-yîn	163	-4-
Heú-yuên	3	King-tí	Hán	พน-รนั	143	
Heú-yuên	2	Wù-tí	Hán	kweî-sź	88	
$Har{\imath}$ - p ' $\hat{\imath}$ ng	6	Lîng-tî	Hán	jîn-tsž		172
$H\bar{\imath}$ -p' $\hat{\imath}$ ng	2	Hiaú-mîng-tí	Wei	pìng-shīn		516
$H\bar{\imath}$ - $ning$	10	Shîn-tsūng	Súng	wù-shīn		1068
Hiaú-kién	3	Hiaú-wù-tí	Pĕ-Súng	kiă-wù		454
Hiaú-chãng	4	Hiaú-mîng-tî	Wei	yĭ-sź		525
Hiên-fūng	10		Tá-ts'īng	kāng-sử		1850
$Hi\hat{e}n$ - $har{\imath}$	2	Yuên-tî	Wei	kiă-shīn		264
Hiên-níng	5	Hwüí-tí	Tsín	yĭ-wî		275
Hiện-hô	9	Chîng-tî	Tsin	pìng-sii		326
$Hi\hat{e}n$ - k ' $ar{a}ng$	8	Chîng-tí	Tsin	yĭ-wí		335
Hiên - gān	2	Hièn-wan-ti	Tsin	sīn-wí		371
Hiên-hāng	4	Kaū-tsūng	T'ang	kāng-wù		670
Hiện-t ung	14	Yí-tsūng	T'ang	kāng-shîn		860
Hiên - p'îng	6	Chīng-tsūng	Súng	พน-รนั		998
Hiên-shận	10	Tú-tsūng	Súng	yĭ-ch'eù		1265
Hiên-yũng	10	Taú-tsūng	Liaû	yĭ-sź		1065
Hiên-tsīng	6	$J \hat{\imath} n$ - $t s \bar{u} n g$	Lī-Liaû	pìng-shîn		1136
Hién-k'ing	5	$Kaar{u}$ - $tsar{\imath}ng$	T'âng	pìng-shîn		656
Hién-tě	6	Shí-tsūng	Heú-cheū	kiă-yîn		954
Hīng-p'îng	2	Hién-tí	Hán	kiă-sŭ		194
Hīng-níng	3	$Ga\bar{\imath}$ - $t\hat{\imath}$	Tsin	kweî-haī		363
Tīng-gān	2	W@n-ching-ti	Wei	jîn-shîn		452
Tīng-kwāng	1	Wận-chîng-tí	Wei	kiă-wù		454
Tīng-hô	4	Hiaú-tsíng-tí	Tũng-weí	kì-wí		539
Tīng-yuên	I	$T\check{e} ext{-}tsar{u}ng$	T'âng	kiă-tsż		784
Ting-ting	5	Siuēn-tsūng	$K\bar{\imath}n$	tīng-ch'eù		1217
Hô-tsīng	3	Wù-chîng-tí	Pĕ-Tsî	jîn-wù		562
Hô-p'îng	3 6	Wận-chîng-tí	Wei	kāng-tsž		460
	-					
Tô-p'îng	4	Chîng-tî	Hán	kweî-sź	28	1

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Hûng-kiā	4	Chîng-tí	Hán	sīn-ch'eù	20	
Hûng-taû	1	Kaū-tsūng	T'âng	kweî-wî		683
Hûng-wù	31	Taí-tsù	Ming	wù-shīn		1368
$H\hat{u}ng$ - $h\bar{\imath}$	I	$J \hat{\imath} n$ - $t s \bar{u} n g$	Mîng	yĭ-sí		1425
Hûng-chí	18	Hiaú-tsũng	Mîng	wù-shīn		1488
Hûng-kwāng	I_{o}^{1}	Fŭ-wâng	Mîng	kiă-shīn		1644
Hwâng-lûng	I	Siuēn-tí	Hán	jîn-shīn	49	
$Hw\^ang$ - ts ' $ar{u}$	7	Wan-ti	Weî	kāng-tsž	17	220
Hwâng-wù	7	Tá-tí	Wil	jîn-yîn		222
Hwâng-lûng	3	Tá-tí	Wil	kì-yiù		229
Hwâng-chì	2	Taú-wù-tí	Wei	pìng-shīn		396
Hwâng-hĩng	4	Hién-wân-tí	Wei	tīng-wí		467
Hwâng-kiến	2	Chaū-tí	Pĕ-Tsî	kāng-shîn		560
Hwâng-yiú	5	$J\hat{\imath}n$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	Súng	kì-ch'eù		1049
Hwâng-kiến	2	Siãng-tsūng	Hiá	kāng-wù		1210
Hwâng-t'ùng	9	$H\bar{\imath}$ -ts \bar{u} ng	$K\bar{\imath}n$	sīn-yiù		1141
Hwâng-k'ing	2	$J\hat{\imath}n$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	Yuên	jîn-tsż		1312
Hwüí-chāng	6	Wù-tsũng	T'âng	sīn-yiù		841
Hwüí-t'ûng	10	T a $-tsung$ T a $-tsung$	Lian	เงน-รูน		1 1
Í-hī	- 1	Gān-tí	Tsin	yĭ-sź		938
f- n î n g	14	Kùng-tí	$Ts\hat{\imath}$			405
	1		T'âng	tīng-ch'eù		617
I-fúng	3	Kaū-tsūng		pìng-tsà		676
Jîn-sheû	4	Wận-tí	Süî	sīn-yiù		601
Jîn-k'ing	5	Jîn-tsūng	Hiá	kiă-tsż		1144
Kaī-hwâng	20	Wận-tí	Süî	sīn-ch'eù		581
Kʻaī-yaú	1	Kaū-tsūng	T'ang	$s\bar{\imath}n$ - $s\acute{z}$		681
Kaī-yuên	29	Hiuên-tsūng	T'ang	kweî-ch'eù		713
K'aī-chîng	5	$W\hat{q}n$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	T'ang	pìng-shîn		836
K'aī-p'îng	4	T'aí-tsù	Heú-Liâng	tīng-maù		907
Kaī-yūn	3	$Ts\hat{\imath}$ -w $\bar{a}ng$	Heû-Tsin	kiă-shîn		944
K'aī-paù	9	T aí- t s \hat{u}	Súng	wù-shîn		968
$K'a\bar{\imath}-h\bar{\imath}$	3	N íng-ts $ar{u}$ ng	Súng	yĭ-ch'eù		1 205
Kaī-k'ing	1	L ì- $tsar{u}ng$	Súng	kì-wí		1259
K'aī-t'aí	9	$Shing$ - $tsar{u}ng$	$Lia\hat{u}$	$j \hat{\imath} n$ - $ts \hat{z}$		1012
Kān-lú	4	Siuēn-tí	Hán	wù-shîn	53	
Kān-lú	4	Chù-maıî	Wei	pìng-tsż		256
Kãng-tíng	I	$J \hat{\imath} n$ - $t s \bar{u} n g$	Súng	kāng-shîn		1040
$K\bar{a}ng$ - $h\bar{\imath}$	61	Shíng-tsù	$Ts\bar{\imath}ng$	jîn-yîn		1662
Kāng-chì	2	Hwaî-yâny-wâng	Hán	kweî-wî		23
Kiā-p'îng	5	Chù-fâng	Wei	kì-sź		249
Kiā-hô	6	Tá-tí	Wa	jîn-tsż		232
Kiā-hīng	4	Mìn-tí	Tsín	kweî-yiù		313
Kiā-yiú	8	$J \hat{\imath} n$ - $t s \bar{u} n g$	Súng	$p ing$ - $sh \bar{\imath} n$		1056
Kiā-t aí	4	$Ning$ - $tsar{u}ng$	Súng	sīn-yiù		1201
Kiā-tíng	17	Ning-tsũng	Súng	$w\hat{u}$ -sh $\hat{i}n$		1208
$Kiar{a}$ - $har{\imath}$	4	Lì-tsũng	Súng	tīng-yiù		1237
Kiā-tsìng	45	Shí-tsũng	Mîng	jîn-wù		1522
Kiā-k'ìng	24		Tá-ts īng	pìng-shîn		1796
Kiên-yuên	6	Wù-tí	Hán	sīn-ch'eù	140	190
Kiên-mîng	I	Chù-yīn	Pĕ-Tsî	kāng-shîn	. 7 0	560
	-	Kaū-tsūng	T'âng	pìng-yîn		666

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Kiên-yuên	2	Sĩ-tsũng	T^{ϵ} âng	wù-sǚ		758
Kiên-fû	6	$H\bar{\imath}$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	$T^{\epsilon} \hat{a} n g$	kiă-wù		874
Kiên-nîng	4	Chaū-tsūng	$T^{*}ang$	kiă-yîn		894
Kiên-hwá	4	Chù-tién	Heú-Liâng	kweî-yiù		913
Kiên-yiú	3	Yìn-tí	Heú-Hán	wù-shīn		948
Kiên-tĕ	5	T'a´ı-ts'ù	Súng	kweî-haī		963
Kiên-hīng	I	Chīng-tsũng	Súng	jîn-sŭ		102
Kiên-taú	9	Hiaú-tsũng	Súng	yĭ-yiù		116
Kiên-hāng	4	Kìng-tsūng	Lian	kì-maù		979
Kiến-t'ùng	10	$T^{\epsilon}iar{e}n$ - $ts\acute{u}$ - $t\acute{i}$	Lian	sīn-sź		110
Kiên-taú	2	Hwüí-tsūng	Hiá	wù-shīn		11068
Kiên-yiú	24	$J\hat{\imath}n$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	Hiá	kāng-yîn		117
Kiên-tíng	4	Hién-tsūng	Hiá	kweî-wí		122
Kiên-lûng	60	Kaū-tsūng	Tá-ts'īng	pìng-shîn		173
Kién-chaū	5	Yuên-tî	Hán	kweî-wi	38	1-13
Kién-chí	4	Chîng-tí	Hán	kì-ch'eù	32	
Kién-p'îng	4	Gaī-tí	Hán	yĭ-maù	6	
Kién-wù	31	Kwāng-wù-tí	Hán	yĭ-yiù	١	25
Kién-ts'ü	8	Chāng-tí	Hán	pìng-tsż		76
Kién-kwāng	ı	Gān-tí	Hán	sīn-yiù		121
Kién-k'āng	1	Shán-tí	Hán	kiă-shīn		1
Kién-kô		Hwân-tí	Hán	1		144
	3			tīng-haī		14
Kién-níng V:én gōn	4	Lîng-tî	Hán	wù-shīn		168
Kién-gān	25	Hién-tí	Hán	pìng-tsà		190
Kién-hīng	15	Heú-chữ	Shŭ-Hán	kweî-maū		223
Kién-hīng	2	Chù-liáng	Wa	jîn-shīn		25
Kién-hậng	3	Chü-kaù	Wa	kì-ch'eù		26
Kién-wù	I	Mìn-tí	Tsin	tīng-ch'eù		31
Kién-yuên	2	K'āng-tí	Tsín	kweî-maù		34
Kién-yuên	4	Kaū-tí	Tsî	kì-wí		47
Kién-wù	4	Mîng-tí	$Ts\hat{\imath}$	kiă-sii		49
Kiến-mîng	I	Chữ-yĕ	Wei	$kar{a}ng$ -s \ddot{u}		53
Kién-tě	6	Wù-tí	Cheū	$k\bar{a}ng$ - $y\hat{i}n$		57
Kién-chũng	4	$T\check{e} ext{-}ts\check{u}ng$	T'âng	kāng-shīn		78
Kién-lûng	3	T'aí-ts'ù	Súng	$k\bar{a}ng$ - $sh\bar{\imath}n$		96
Kién-chūng tsìng-kwŏ	1	$Hw\ddot{u}ar{\imath}$ - $tsar{u}ng$	Súng	ร <i>īn-sź</i>		1110
Kién-yên	4	$Ka\bar{u}$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	Súng	$t\bar{\imath}ng$ - $w\hat{\imath}$		112
$Ki\acute{e}n$ - $w\mathring{q}n$	5	Hwüí-tĭ	$M\hat{\imath}ng$	kì-maù		139
$King$ - ts ' $i\bar{\imath}$	2	Mîng-tí	Weí	$tar{\imath}ng$ -s z		23
Kìng-yuên	4	Yuên-tî	Wei	$k\bar{a}ng$ -sh $\hat{i}n$		26
King- p ' ing	I	Yûng-yâng-wâng	Pĕ-Súng	$kve\hat{\imath}-ha\bar{\imath}$	1	42
Kìng-hô	I	Fí-tí	Pĕ-Súng	yĭ-sź		46
King- $ming$	4	Siuēn-wù-tí	Wei	kāng-shîn		50
Kìng-lûng	3	$Ch\bar{u}ng$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	T'ang	$t\bar{\imath}ng$ - wi		70
Kìng-yûn	2	Süí-tsũng	T'ang	kāng-sŭ		71
Kìng-fŭ	2	$Chaar{u}$ - $tsar{u}ng$	T'âng	jîn-tsž		89
Kìng-tě	4	$Ch\bar{\imath}ng$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	Súng	kiă-shîn		10
Kìng-yiú	4	$J \hat{\imath} n$ - $t s \bar{u} n g$	Súng	kiă-sŭ		10
Kìng-tíng	5	Lì-tsũng	Sung	kāng-shīn		12
Kìng-yên	2	Twān-tsūng	Súng	pìng-sź		12
Kìng-t'aí	7	Kìng-tsũng	Ming	kāng-wù		14

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Kíng-níng	I	Yuên-tî	Hán	wù-tsż	33	
Kíng-yaú	5	Heú-chữ	Shŭ-Hán	$w\hat{u}$ - $y\hat{\imath}n$		258
K'ing-l i	8	Jîn-tsūng	Súng	$s\bar{\imath}n$ - sz		1041
K'ing-yuên	5	Ning-tsung	Súng	yĭ-maù		1195
Kiù-shí	I	T'iēn-heù	T'âng	kāng-tsž		700
$K \acute{u}$ -sh i ĕ	2	Shű-tsż-yīng	Hán	pìng-yîn		6
Kùng-tí	4	Kùng-tí	Wei	kiă-sŭ		554
Kùng-hwá	5	$Y\bar{\imath}ng$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	Hiá	kweî-maù		1063
Kwāng-hô	6	Lîng-tí	Hán	wù-wù		178
$Kwar{a}ng$ - $har{\imath}$	I	Hwüí-tí	Tsin	pìng-yîn		306
Kwāng-tá	2	Lîn-haì-wâng	$Ch\hat{\imath}n$	tīng-haī		567
$Kwar{a}ng$ - $tsar{e}$	I	T'iēn-heù	T'ang	kiă-shīn		684
Kwāng-k'ì	3	$H\bar{\imath}$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	T'âng	yĭ-sź		885
Kwāng-hwá	3	Chaū-tsūng	T'ang	พน-พน		898
Kwāng-ting	13	Shîn-tsūng	Hiá	$s\bar{\imath}n$ - wi		1211
Kwàng-tě	2	$Tai-ts\bar{u}ng$	T'ang	kweî-maù		763
Kw ang- $m ng$	I	$H\bar{\imath}$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	T'âng	$k\bar{a}ng$ - $ts\hat{z}$		880
Kwàng-shạn		T'aí-ts'ù	Heú-Cheū	sin-haī		1
Kwàng-yắn	3 2	Kìng-tsūng	Hiá	kiă-sii		951
Lîn-tě	2	$Ka\bar{u}$ -ts $\bar{u}ng$	T'âng	kiă-tsż		664
$L\hat{u}$ ng-h \hat{o}		$Ga\bar{\imath}$ -t $\hat{\imath}$	Tsin	$j\hat{\imath}n$ - $s\check{u}$		
	I	Gān-tí	Tsin			362
$L\hat{u}ng$ - $g\bar{a}n$	5	Heú-chữ-weí	Pĕ-Tsî	tīng-yiù		397
Lûng-hvá	1		T'âng	pìng-shīn		576
Lûng-sŏ	2	Kaū-tsūng	T'âng	sīn-yiù		661
Lûng-kì	I	Hī-tsūng Chù-t'ién	Heú-Liâng	kì-yiù		889
$L\hat{u}ng$ -t $reve{t}$	2			\$\bar{\bar{\bar{\bar{\bar{\bar{\bar{		921
$L\hat{u}ng$ - $h\bar{\iota}ng$	2	Hiaú-tsũng	Súng	kweî-wí		1163
Lûng-k'ing	6	Mŭ-tsūng	Ming	tīng-maù		1567
Lûng-wù	I	T'ang-wang	Mîng	pìng-sü		1646
Mîng-tí	2	Mîng-tí	Cheū	tīng-ch'eù		557
Mîng-taú	2	$J\hat{\imath}n$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	Súng	$j\hat{i}n$ -sh $\bar{i}n$		1032
Mîng-chāng	6	Chāng-tsūng	$K\bar{\imath}n$	kāng-sü		1190
$N \hat{\imath} ng$ - k ' $\bar{a} ng$	3	Wù-tí	Tsín	kweî-yiù		373
Pàn-chì	4	Siuēn-tí	Hán	$w\hat{u}$ - $sh\bar{\imath}n$	73	
$P\dot{a}n$ - ts ' $ar{u}$	I	Chĭ-tí	Hán	pìng-sii		146
Paù-tíng	5	Wù-tí	$Che\bar{u}$	$s\bar{\imath}n$ - $s\acute{z}$		561
Pau - $y\bar{\imath}ng$	I	S ĭ- ts \bar{u} ng	T'ang	$ j \hat{\imath} n - y \hat{\imath} n $		762
Paù- l ĭ	2	K íng- t s \bar{u} n g	T'ang	yĭ-sź		825
Paù-yuên	2	$J \hat{\imath} n$ - $t s \bar{u} n g$	Súng	$w\hat{u}$ - $y\hat{\imath}n$		1038
Paù-k'ing	3	Li - $tsar{u}ng$	Súng	yĭ- yiu		1225
Paù - yiú	6	L ì- $tsar{u}ng$	Súng	kweî-ch'eù		1253
Paù-tá	5	T'iēn-tsù-tí	Liaû	sīn-ch'eù		1121
Paù-níng	10	Kìng-tsūng	Lian	kì-sź		969
Paù-ting	3	Chữ-kaù	Wil	$pìng$ - $s\ddot{u}$		266
P ' \hat{u} - t ' \bar{u} ng	7	Wù-tí	Liang	$k\bar{a}ng$ - $ts\hat{z}$		520
Shán-chí	18	Shí-tsù	Tá-ts īng	kiă-shīn		1644
Shận-yiú	12	Li - $ts\bar{u}ng$	Súng	sīn-ch'eù		1241
Shận-hwá	5	T'a´ı-tsūng	Súng	kāng-yîn		990
$Sh\hat{q}n$ - $h\bar{\imath}$	16	Hiaú-tsũng	Súng	kiă-wù		1174
Sháng-yuên	2	Kaū-tsūng	T'ang	kiă-sŭ		674
Sháng-yuên	2	Sĭ-tsūng	T'ang	$k\bar{a}ng$ - $ts\dot{z}$		760

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Shaū-t'aí	1	Kíng-tí	Liâng	yĭ-haī		555
Shaū-shíng	4	Chĕ-tsūng	Súng	kiă-sŭ		1094
Shaū-hīng	32	$Ka\bar{u}$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	Súng	sīn-haī		1131
$Sha\bar{u}$ - $h\bar{\imath}$	5	Kwāng-tsūng	Súng	kāng-sử		1190
Shaū-tíng	6	Li - $ts\bar{u}nq$	Súng	wù-tsż		1228
Shaū-hīng	12	Chîng-t'iēn t'aí-heú	Sī-Liaû	jîn-sŭ		1142
Shaū-wù	1/2	Fŭ-wâng	Mîng	pìng-sử		1646
Sheū-kwŏ	2	$T^{\epsilon}ai$ - tsu	$K\bar{\imath}n$	yĭ-wí		1115
Sheú-lûng	6	$Ta\acute{u}$ - $ts\ddot{u}ng$	Liaû	yĭ-haī		1095
Shîn-tsiŏ	4	Siuēn-tí	Hán	$k\bar{a}ng$ - $sh\bar{\imath}n$	61	1090
Shîn-shwiii	2	Mîng-yuên-tî	Wei	kiă-yîn	01	414
Shîn-kiā	1	T'a´ı-wù-t´ı	Wei	wù-shîn		428
$Sh\hat{\imath}n$ - $kwe\bar{\imath}$	4 2	Mîng-tí	Wei	พน-รูกเก		518
Shîn-kūng	I	$T^{\epsilon}iar{e}n$ -he $i\epsilon$	T'âng	1		697
Shîn-lûng	2		$T^* \hat{a} n g$	tīng-yiù yĭ-sź		
Shîn-tsĕ	6	Chūng-tsūng	$Lia\hat{u}$			705
	1	T'aí-tsūng		pìng-tsà		916
Shīng-mîng	2	Shán-tí	Pĕ-Súng	tīng-sź		477
Shīng-p'îng	5	Mŭ-tí	Tsin	tīng-sź		357
Shíng-lǐ	2	T'iēn-heù	Tang	wù-sũ		698
Siēn-t'iēn	1	Hiuên-tsūng	Tang	kweî-ch'eù		713
Siuēn-chíng	I	Siuēn-tí	Cheū	wù-sū		578
Siuēn-hô	7	Hwüī-tsūng	Súng	kì-haī		1119
Siuēn-tĕ	10	Siuen-tsung	$M\hat{i}ng$	pìng-jîn		1426
Süī-hô	2	Chîng-tî	Hán	kweî-ch eù	8	40
Sź-shíng	21	$Ch\bar{u}ng$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	T'ang	kiă-shīn		684
Tá-mîng	8	Wù-tí	Pĕ-Súng	tīng-yiù	1	457
Ta -t' $\bar{u}ng$	2	Wù-tí	Liâng	$t\bar{\imath}ng$ - $w\imath$		527
Tá-t'ûng	11	Wù-tí	Liâng	yĭ-maù		535
Tá-paù	2	Kiè n - w ậ n - t í	Liâng	$k\bar{a}ng$ - wu		550
Tá-siáng	3	Tsing-ti	$Chear{u}$	$ki-ha\bar{\imath}$		579
Tá-niĕ	I 2	Yáng-tí	Süî	yĭ-ch'eù		605
Tá-lĭ	14	Tai - $tsar{u}ng$	T'âng	pìng-wù		766
Tá-chūng	13	$Siuar{e}n$ - $tsar{u}ng$	T'ang	tīng-maù		847
Tá-shận	2	$Chaar{u}$ - $tsar{u}ng$	T'ang	kiă-yîn		890
Tá-chũng tsiâng-fû	9	$Ch\bar{\imath}ng$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	Súng	wù-shīn		1008
Tá-kwān	4	$Hw\ddot{u}\bar{\imath}$ - $tsar{u}ng$	Súng	tīng-haī		1107
Tá-k āng	10	$Ta\hat{u}$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	Lian	yĭ-maù		1075
Tá-gãn	10	Taú-tsūng	Liaû	yĭ-ch'eù		1085
Tá-k'ing	2	Kìng-tsũng	Hiá	pìng-tsà		1036
Tá-gān	IO	Hwü´ı-tsūng	Hiá	pìng-shîn		1076
Tá-tě	5	Tsûng-tsūng	Hiá	yĭ-maù		1135
Tá-k'ing	4	$J\hat{\imath}n$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	Hiá	kāng-shīn		1140
Tá-tíng	29	Shi - $ts\bar{u}ng$	$K\bar{\imath}n$	sīn-sź		1161
Tá-gān	3	Chữ-yùng-tsĩ	$K\bar{\imath}n$	kì-sź		1200
Tá-tě	II	$Ch\hat{\imath}ng$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	Yuên	tīng-yiù		1297
T'aí-chãng	I	$Kw\bar{a}nq$ - $ts\bar{u}nq$	Mîng	kāng-shīn		1620
Tai-ting	4	T'aí-tíng-tí	Yuên	kiă-tsż		1324
T'aí-p'îng hīng-kwŏ	8	T'aí-tsūng	Súng	pìng-tsà		976
T aí- t s' $ar{u}$	4	Wit-ti	Hán	tīng-ch'eù	104	1
Taí-chì		Wù-tí	Hán	yĭ-yiù	96	
Taí-hô	4 6	Mîng-tí	Wei	$t\bar{\imath}ng$ -wi	90	227

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T°aí-yuên	1	Tá-tí	Wû	รริก-พา		251
T'a´î-p'îng	2	Chù-liáng -	Wû	pìng-tsà		256
T°aí-shì	10	Wù-tí	Tsin	yĭ-yiù		265
T ° a í- k ° $ar{a}$ ng	10	Hwiií-tí	Tsin	kāng-tsž	l	280
T ʻa \hat{i} - $gar{a}n$	2	Hwüí-tí	Tsin	jîn-sŭ		302
T 'a $\hat{\imath}$ - $har{\imath}nq$	4	Mìn-tí	Tsin	wù-yîn		318
T•aí-hô	8	Chāng-tsūng	$K\bar{\imath}n$	sīn-yiù		1201
T°aí-kĭ	· 1	Süí-tsūng	T'ang	jîn-tsż		712
T°aí-níng	3	Mîng-tí	Tsín	kweî-wî	l	323
T'aí-p'îng	9	Hwiii-ti	Tsín	$s\bar{\imath}n$ - $ha\bar{\imath}$		291
T°aí-hô	5	Haī-sī-kūng	Tsin	pìng-yîn		366
T°aî-yuên	21	Wù-tí	Tsin	pìng-tsà		376
T'aî-yuên	I	Kùng-tí	Süî	wù-yîn		618
T·aí-chì	7	Mîng-tî	Pě-Súng	ww gen		475
T aí-y \hat{u}	I	Mîng-tî	Pĕ-Súng	jîn-tsž		475
Tai-ya $Tai-tsing$	3	Wù-tí	Liâng	tīng-maù		547
Taí-hô		Wận-tsũng	T'âng	$t\bar{\imath}ng$ -wi		827
T a i - no T a i - p i ng	9	Kíng-tí	Liâng	$p ing-ts \dot{z}$		
T'aí-p'îng	11	Shing-tsūng	Liaû _	sīn-yiù]	556
Taí-kién	1	Siuên-tî	$Ch\hat{\imath}n$	kì-ch'eù		1021
Taí-ch'ang	14 8	1	Wei			569
V	1	Mîng-yuên-tí T'aí-wù-tí	Wei	pìng-shín		416
T'aí-yên T'aí a' a' a a lan a lian	5	$T^{ai-wu-ti}$ $T^{ai-wu-ti}$		yĭ-haī		435
T'aí-p'îng chīng-kiūn	12		Wei	$k\bar{q}ng$ -shîn		440
T'aí-gān	5	Wận-chîng-tí	Wei	yĭ-wí		455
T°aí-hô	23	Wận-tí	Wei	$t\bar{\imath}ng$ -sź		477
T'ai-t'ùng	17	Wan-ti	Wei	yĭ-maù		535
$T^{\epsilon}ai$ - $ning$	1	Wù-chîng-tí	Pĕ-Tsî	sīn-sź		561
Tāng-kwŏ	10	Taú-wù-tí	Wei	pìng-sử		386
Taú-kwāng	30	775	Tá-ts īng	$k\bar{a}ng$ -shîn		1820
Tĕ-yiú	I	Kùng-tsūng	Súng	yĭ-haî	_	1275
Tî-tsiĕ	4	Siuēn-tí	Hán	$j \hat{\imath} n$ - $t s \hat{z}$	96	
Tí-hwâng	3	Wang-mang	Hán	$k\bar{a}ng$ -shîn		20
Tiaû-hî	I	$Kaar{u}$ - $tsar{u}ng$	T ° $\hat{a}ng$	kì-maù		679
Tiēn-hán	4	Wù-tí	Hán	sīn-sź	100	
T'iēn-fúng	6	Wâng-màng	Há n	kiă-sü		14
$T^{m{\cdot}}iar{e}n$ - $tsreve{e}$	I	Chữ-kaù	Wu	yĭ-wí		275
$T^{\epsilon}iar{e}n$ -s i	1	Chữ-kaù	Wu	$ping-sh\bar{\imath}n$		276
T i $ar{e}n$ - k i	I	Chữ-kaù	Wû	tīng-yiù		277
T ʻ $iar{e}n$ - $ki\acute{e}n$	18	Wù-tí	$Li\hat{a}ng$	jîn-wù		502
T ʻ $iar{e}n$ - $kiar{a}$	6	Wận-tí	$Ch\hat{\imath}n$	kāng-shîn		560
T ʻi $ar{e}n$ - k ʻ $ar{a}ng$	I	Wận-tí	$Ch\hat{\imath}n$	pìng-sử		566
$T^{m{\epsilon}}iar{e}n$ - $har{\imath}ng$	6	Taŭ-wù-tí	Weî	พน-รนั		398
T ' $iar{e}n$ - sz	5	Taú-wù-tí	Weî	kiă-shîn		404
$T^{ullet}iar{e}n ext{-}gar{a}n$	1	Hién-wận-tí	Weî	ping-wi		466
T ʻi $ar{e}n$ - p ʻ $\hat{i}ng$	4	Tsíng-tí	Túng-Weí	kiă-yîn		534
T'iēn-paù	10	Wān-siuēn-tí	$Preve{e}$ - $Ts\hat{\imath}$	kāng-wù		550
T $\dot{i}ar{e}n$ \dot{t} $\dot{u}ng$	5	Heú-chữ-weí	Pĕ-Tsî	yĭ-yiù		565
$T^{ullet}iar{e}n$ - $h\hat{o}$	6	Wù-tî	$Chaar{u}$	pìng-sử		566
Tiēn-sheú	2	T'iēn-heù	T'âng	kāng-yîn		690
Tiēn-tsĕ-wán-süí	1	T'iēn-heù	T'ang	yř-wí		695
T'ien-paù	14	Hiuên-tsũng	$T^{\bullet}\hat{a}ng$	jîn-wù		742

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T'iēn-fŭ	3	Chaū-tsūng	T'âng	sīn-yiù		901
T'iēn-yiú	4	Chaū-siuēn-tí	T'âng	kiă-tsż		904
T'iēn-chîng	4	$M\hat{\imath}ng$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	Heú-T'âng	pìng-sử		926
T'iēn-fŭ	8	Kaū-ts'ù	Heú-Tsín	pìng-shīn		936
T'iēn-fŭ	I	Kaū-ts'ù	Heú-Hán	tīng-wí		947
$T^*i\bar{e}n-h\bar{\imath}$	5	$Ch\bar{\imath}ng$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	Súng	tīng-sź	_	1017
Tiēn-shíng	9	$J \hat{\imath} n$ - $t s \bar{u} n g$	Súng	kweî-haī		1023
$T^{i}ien-tsan$	4	T'ai-tsūng	Liaû.	jîn-wù		922
Tien-hien	12	T'ai-tsūng	Liad	pìng-sử		926
Tiēn-lŭ	4	Shi-tsung	Lian	tīng-wí		947
T'ien-k'ing	10	T'iēn-tsú-tí	Lian	sīn-maù		IIII
T i $ar{e}n$ - $har{\imath}$	34	Chǐ-lù-kù	Sī-Liaû	wù-tsż		1168
T'iēn-yiú-chüî-shíng	3	$Y\bar{\imath}ng$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	Hiá	kāng-yîn		1050
T'iēn-sź-lì-shíng-kwŏ-k'íng	6	Hwüí-tsũng	Hiá	kāng-sử		1070
T 'i $ar{e}$ n- $gar{a}$ n- l ì-tín g	I	$Ts\hat{u}ng$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	$Hi\acute{a}$	pìng-yîn		1086
T ' $iar{e}n$ - \hat{i} - $ch\hat{i}$ - p ' $\hat{i}ng$	4	$Ts\hat{u}ng$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	Hiá	tīng-maù		1087
T 'i $ar{e}n$ - y i \acute{u} - m î n - g $ar{a}n$	8	$Ts\hat{u}ng$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	Hiá	ราก-พา		1001
T i $ar{e}n$ -shíng	21	$J \hat{\imath} n$ - $t s \bar{u} n g$	Hiá	kì-sź		1149
T ' $iar{e}n$ - k ' ing	13	$Hw\hat{a}n$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	Hiá	kiă-yîn		1194
$T^{i}ar{e}n$ - $f\hat{u}$	7	Taí- $tsù$	$K\bar{\imath}n$	$t\bar{\imath}ng$ - $yi\hat{\imath}u$		1117
Tiēn-hwüí	15	$T^{\epsilon}a\hat{\imath}$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	$K\bar{\imath}n$	kweî-maù		1123
T'iēn-kiuén	L.	$H\bar{\imath}$ -ts \bar{u} ng	$K\bar{\imath}n$	wù-wù		1 9
T'iēn-tĕ	3	Tí-liáng	$K\bar{\imath}n$	ki-sz		1138
$T^i i \bar{e} n - h \bar{i} n g$		$Ga\bar{\imath}$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	$K\bar{\imath}n$	jîn-shîn		1149
T ' $iar{e}n$ - $lar{i}$	3 2	W $\hat{q}n$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	Yuên	wù-shîn		1328
Tiēn-shán	8	$Y\bar{\imath}ng$ -ts $\bar{u}ng$	Mîng	tīng-ch'eù		1457
$Ti\bar{e}n-k'i$	7	$H\bar{\imath}$ -ts \bar{u} ng	Mîng	sīn-yiù		1621
T i $ar{e}$ n-míng	11	T'aí-tsù	$Ts\bar{\imath}ng$	pìng-shîn		1616
T i $ar{e}n$ - $tsar{u}ng$	1	T aí-ts \bar{u} ng	$Ts\bar{\imath}nq$	tīng-maù		1627
$Tsi\hat{a}ng$ - $har{\imath}ng$	9	Ti-pìng	Súng	wù-yîn		1278
$Tsar{\imath}ng ext{-}l\hat{\imath}ng$	4	Mîng-tí	Wei	kweî-ch'eù		
Tsīng-t'aí	3	Lú-wâng	Heú-T'âng	kiă-wù		233
Tsîng-k [*] āng	3	K ' $\bar{\imath}n$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	Súng	1		934
Tsīng-níng		$Ta\hat{u}$ -ts \bar{u} ng	Liaû	pìng-wù yĭ-wí		1
$Ts^{\epsilon}ar{u}$ -yu $\hat{e}n$	9	$Yu\hat{e}n$ -ti	Hán			1055
Ts'ū-chì	5	Shű-tsż-yīng	Hán	kweî-yiù wù-shîn	48	8
$Ts'\bar{u}$ - $p'\hat{i}ng$	}	Hién-tí	Hán	kāng-wù		
Tsūng-hiún	4	Kùng-tí	Heú-Cheū	kāng-shīn		960
Tsûng-ning	1	Hwüī-tsūng	Súng	jîn-wù		1 -
Tsûng-fŭ	5	Chîng-t'iēn-t'aí-heú	Sī-Liaû	kiă-sŭ		1102
Tsûng-k*íng	I 4		Kīn	$j\hat{\imath}n$ -sh $\bar{\imath}n$		1154
Tsûng-tĕ 。	8	Chù-yùng-tsĭ T•aí-tsūng	Tá-ts īng			1212
Tsûng-chíng		Sź-tsūng	Mîng	pìng-tsà		1636
Tsùng-chāng	17	Kaū-tsūng	$T^{\hat{a}ng}$	wù-shîn wù-yîn		668
T'ûng-kwāng	2	Chwāng-tsūng	Heú-Tâng	kweî-wí		1
T'ûng-chí	3	January-isung	Tá-Tsìng	$s\bar{\imath}n-yi\hat{\imath}$		924 1861
Tùng-hô	20	Shina-tering	Liaû	kweî-wì		
Twān-kùng	29	Shing-tsūng Tai-tsūna		wù-tsż		983
$Twar{a}n$ - p 'ing	2	$T^{\epsilon}ai$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	Súng	kiă-wù		988
Wán-süí t'ūng-t'iēn	3	Lì-tsūng T iēn-heù	Súng	pìng-shīn		1234 696
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Wận-tĕ	I	Hī-tsūng	T^{ϵ} âng	wù-shīn		888
Wù-fúng	2	Chù-liáng	Wa	kiă-sŭ		254
Wù-tíng	8	Tsing-ti	Tüng-Weî	kweî-haī		543
Wù-fúng	4	Siuēn-tí	Hán	kiă-tsż	57	0.0
$W\hat{u}$ -p' \hat{i} ng	6	Heú-chữ-weí	Pĕ-Tsî	kāng-yîn	•	570
Wù-chîng	2	Mîng-tí	$Chaar{u}$	kì-maù		559
Wù-tĕ	9	Kaū-tsūng	T^{\bullet} âng	wù-yîn		618
Yâng-sŏ	4	Chîng-tí	Hán	tīng-yiù	24	
$Y\hat{a}ng$ - $kiar{a}$	4	Shán-tí	Há n	jîn-shîn		132
$Y \hat{e} n$ - p ' $\hat{i} n g$	i	Shāng-tí	Há n	pìng-wù		106
Yên-kwāng	4	Gān-tí	Hán	kì-wi		122
$Y\hat{e}n$ - $har{\imath}$	9	Hwân-tî	Hán	$w \hat{u}$ - $s \check{u}$	i	158
$Y\hat{e}n$ - $har{\imath}$	20	Heú-chù	Shŭ-Hán	พน-พน		238
$Y\hat{e}n$ - $har{\imath}nq$	I	Heú-chù	Shŭ-Hán	kweî-wî		263
$Y\hat{e}n$ - $h\hat{o}$	3	T'aí-wù-tí	Weí	$j\hat{\imath}n$ - $sh\bar{\imath}n$		432
$Y\hat{e}n$ - $har{v}$ ng	5	Wận-tí	Wei	$s\bar{\imath}n$ - $ha\bar{\imath}$		471
$Y \hat{e} n$ -chāng	4	Siuēn-wù-tí	Wei	jîn-shîn		512
Yên-tsaî	1	T'iēn-heù	T'âng	kiă-wù		694
Yên-k'ing	11	T \overline{e} T	Sī-Liaû	yĭ-sź		
Yên-tsú	II		Hiá	$w\hat{u}$ - $y\hat{i}n$		112
Yên-sź-níng-kwŏ	1	King-tsüng	Hiá Hiá	kì-ch'eù		1038
	I	Yīng-tsūng	$Yu\hat{e}n$			104
Yên-yiú	7	Jîn-tsūng		kiă-yîn		131
Yīng-shạn	18	Mîn-tî	Heú-Tâng	i .		934
Yīng-lĭ	-	Mŭ-tsūng	Liaû	$s\bar{\imath}n$ - $ha\bar{\imath}$		951
$Y \bar{\imath} ng$ -t' $i \bar{e} n$	4	Siāng-tsūng	Hiá	tīng-maù		120
Yuên-niên	7	King-tí	Hán	yĭ-yiù	156	
Yuên-kwāng	6	Wù-tî	Hán	tīng-wí	134	
Yuên-sŏ	6	Wù-tí	Hán	kweî-ch'eù	128	
Yuên-heú	6	Wù-tí	Hán	jîn-sŭ	122	
Yuên-tìng	6	Wù-tí	Hán	yĭ-ch eù	116	
Yuên-fúng	6	Wù-tí	Hán	รīท-พา	110	
Yuên-fúng	6	Chaū-tí	Hán	$sar{\imath}n$ -ch ${}^{\epsilon}e\dot{\imath}u$	80	
Yuên-p'îng	I	$Chaar{u}$ - $t\hat{\imath}$	Há n	$t\bar{\imath}ng$ - $w\imath$	74	1
Yuên-k'āng	4	Siuēn-tí	$H\acute{a}n$	pìng-shîn	65	
$Yu\hat{e}n$ - $y\hat{e}n$	4	Chîng-tí	Hán	ki- yiu	12	1
Yuên-sheú	2	Gaī-tí	Hán	ki- wi	2	
$Yu\hat{e}n$ -chì	5	P'îng-tî	$H\acute{a}n$	$s\bar{\imath}n$ - $yiù$		I
$Yu\hat{e}n$ - $h\hat{o}$	3	$Ch\bar{a}ng$ - ti	Hán	kiă-shīn]	84
$Yu\hat{e}n$ - $h\hat{i}ng$	1	Hô-tí	Hán	yĭ-sź		10
$Yu\hat{e}n$ - ts ' $ar{u}$	6	Gān-tí	Hán	kiă-yîn		II
$Yu\hat{e}n$ - $kiar{a}$	2	Hwân-tí	Hán	sīn-maù		151
$Yu\hat{e}n$ - $har{\imath}ng$	1	Chù-kaù	Wil	kiă-shīn		264
$Yu\hat{e}n$ - $h\bar{\imath}ng$	3	Gān-tí	Tsin	$j \hat{\imath} n$ - $y \hat{\imath} n$		402
$Yu\hat{e}n$ - $har{\imath}$	I	Kùng-tí	Tsin	kì-wí		419
$Yu\hat{e}n$ - $kiar{a}$	30	Wận-tí	Pĕ-Súng	kiă-tsż		42
Yuên-hwüī	4	Tsāng-yú-wâng	Pĕ-Súng	kweî-ch'eù		473
Yuên-tsiáng	I	Tsíng-tí	Tũng-Wei			53
$Yu\hat{e}n$ - $h\hat{o}$	15	Hién-tsūng	Tâng	pìng-sử		80
$Yu\hat{e}n$ - $far{u}ng$	8	Shîn-tsūng	Súng	wù-wù		107
Yuên-yiú	8	$Ch\check{e}$ - $ts\bar{u}ng$	Súng	ping-yin		108
Yuên-fû	3	Chě-tsūng	Súng	wù-yîn	1	109

Niên-haú.	Dura- tion.	Emperor.	Dynasty.	Year of the cycle.	B.C.	A.D.
Yuên-tĕ	7	Tsûng-tsūng	Hiá	kāng-tsż		1120
Yuên-kwāng	2	Siuen-tsung	$K\bar{\imath}n$	jîn-wù		1222
Yuên-chīng	2	Chîng-tsūng	Yuên	<i>นุ</i> รั-พร์	1	1295
Yuên-t'ùng	2	Shán-tí	Yuên	kweî-yiù		1333
$Y \bar{u} n g - h \bar{\imath}$	4	T'aí-tsūng	Súng	kiă-shīn		984
Yūng-níng	5	Tsûng-tsūng	Hiá	พุรั-พร์		1115
Yūng-chíng	13	Shí-tsūng	Tá-ts īng	kweî-maù		1723
Yùng-kwāng	5	Yuên-tî	Hán	wù-yîn	43	-1-3
Yùng-shì	4	Chîng-tí	Hán	yĭ-sź	16	
Yùng-p'îng	18	Mîng-tí	Hán	พน-พน	10	58
Yùng-yuên	16	Hô-tí	Hán	kì-ch'eù	1	89
Y ung- $guenY ung-ts'ar{u}$		Gān-tí	Hán	$t\bar{\imath}nq$ - wi		107
Yùng-ning	7	$G\bar{a}n$ - ti	Hán	kāng-shīn	1	120
	6		Hán			126
Yùng-kiến Vàng- 1.2	6	Shán-tí	1	pìng-yîn		1
Yùng-hô	1	Shán-tí	Hán	pìng-tsà		136
Yùng-kiā	I	Chūng-tí	Hán	yĭ-yiù		145
$Y ung-h \bar{\imath} ng$	2	Hwân-tí	Hán	$kwe \hat{\imath}$ -s z		153
Yùng-sheú	3	Hwan-ti	Hán	yĭ-wí		155
Yùng-k'āng	I	Hwân-tî	Hán	$t\bar{\imath}ng$ - $w\imath$		167
$Yùng$ - $g\bar{a}n$	7	Kìng-tí	Wû	wù-yîn		258
$Yùng$ - $h ilde{\imath}$	1	Hwiií-tí	Tsin	$kar{a}ng$ - $s\ddot{u}$		290
Yùng-k'āng	I	Hwiií-tí	Tsin	$k\bar{a}ng$ -s $h\bar{\imath}n$	İ	300
Yùng-níng	I	Hwiií-tí	Tsin	sīn-yiù		301
$Yùng$ - $har{\imath}ng$	2	Hwüí-tí	Tsin	kiă-tsż		304
$Yùng$ - $kiar{a}$	6	Hwaî-tî	Tsin	tīng-maù	1	307
$Yùng$ - $ch\bar{a}ng$	1	Mìn-tí	Tsin	jîn-wù		322
Yùng-hô	12	Mŭ-tî	Tsin	yĭ-sź		345
$Yùng$ - t ' $ear{u}$	3	Wù-tí	Pĕ-Súng	kweî-shīn		420
Yùng-mîng	11	Wù-tí	Tsî	kweî-haī		483
Yùng-t'aí	1	Mîng-tí	$Ts\hat{\imath}$	wù-yîn		498
Yùng-yuên	2	Tūng-hwān-heû	$Ts\hat{\imath}$	kì-maù	1	499
Yùng-tíng	3	Wù-tí	Chín	tīng-ch'eù		557
Yùng-hīng	5	Mîng-yuên-tí	Wei	kì-pìng		409
Yùng-p'îng	4	Siuēn-wù-tí	Wei	wù-tsż		508
Yùng-gān	2	Chwāng-tí	Wei	wù-shīn		528
$Y \hat{u} n g - h \bar{\imath}$	3	Wù-tí	Wei	iîn-tsż		532
Yùng-p'îng	2	Fí-tí	Wei	$j\hat{\imath}n$ - $sh\bar{\imath}n$		552
Yùng-hwüī	6	Kaū-tsūng	T'ang	kāng-sử		650
Yùng-lûng	ı	$Ka\bar{u}$ -ts \bar{u} ng	T'âng	kāng-shîn		680
0 0	1					682
Yùng-shận	I	Kaū-tsūng	T'ang	jîn-wù		
Yùng-chāng	I	T'iēn-heù	T'ang	kì-ch'eù		689
Yùng-t'aí	I	Taí-tsūng	T'ang	yĭ-sź		765
Yùng-chīng	I	Shán-tsūng	Tang	yĭ-yiù		805
$Yùng$ - $g\bar{a}n$	3	$Ts\hat{u}ng$ - $tsar{u}ng$	Hiá	kì-maù		1099
$Yùng$ -l \check{o}	22	Chîng-tsù	$M\hat{\imath}ng$	kweî-wí		1403
Yùng-lĭ	15	Kwei-wâng	Mîng	tīng-haī		1647

APPENDIX V.

A comparison of some Chinese dialects with reference to their pronunciation.

The Chinese divide their syllables into two parts,—the initial and the final. They do not understand how to analyse the syllable into its component letters, and therefore it often happens that they are unable to distinguish slight changes in the pronunciation of certain words. Hence arises a difficulty to the student, who is frequently unable to catch the articulations of his Chinese tutor. And if the Chinese tutor is unable to discern the difference between certain letters, much less is he able to say how or why changes in various dialects have taken place, and he is also less expert at speaking various dialects of his own country than a well practised foreigner.

The want of an alphabetic system, by which articulations may be accurately expressed, is the cause of this. And the foreigner has this advantage over the untutored Chinese, who has nothing to guide his pronunciation but the ear, while the European has the sound written down for his eye, and the letters are the symbols of an analytic process. We have only to call to mind the vulgar provincialisms of our own country, and the transformation of words, produced by the unlettered rustic, to understand the value of our alphabet, in aiding us to escape the most chaotic differences of pronunciation, which would make English a Babel of dialects, were they allowed to pass from one to another by the ear alone without being written down.

Now although we cannot start a theory as to which dialect represents the original and true pronunciation of Chinese with much chance of proving it, we may for the sake of convenience assume that that which presents us with the clearest and most definite pronunciation is the nearest to that original, and to what Chinese pronunciation should be. It is an undoubted fact that changes have taken place in some syllables, but the great mass of Chinese sounds is most ancient and simple. If then we could ascertain exactly what this ancient pronunciation was, we should be in a better position to show how or why the subsequent changes have occurred.

The Chinese, as was said, do not write down the sounds of their syllables; but we do so to assist our memory, and to define clearly what those sounds are. What we value in our own language, among other things, is the orthography which shows the etymology in many words; and we obstinately refuse to entertain the new principles of the "Fonetik Nuz;" and we persist in keeping our ancient spelling of words, because we delight to see the remains which exist of their parentage and origin.

China has numerous dialects with a common origin; these ought all to be represented by the Roman alphabet, and they ought to follow in a certain degree the primary and the purest pronunciation. Slight changes should be explained with the old spelling, instead of a new orthography being invented for each dialect.

Dialectic changes affect either the consonantal sounds, or the vowel sounds, or both, there is the elision of a letter, the addition of a letter to the syllable, or a change of tone. The regular changes which we find in European languages occur in Chinese. (Cf. Art. 3. Part I.) The Mandarin dialect (i. e. the $Kw\bar{u}n-hw\hat{u}$), spoken in the central provinces, preserves the primary vowel sounds (a, i, u) and the simple combinations of these (ai, au, iu, ia, ui, ua), while the provincial dialects modify these latter considerably, and produce such sounds as those which are represented in this work by $e(\bar{a})$, $o(\bar{o})$, o(aw), \ddot{o} (German), \ddot{u} (French), and the primary vowels a, i, u are pure, and with the Italian sounds.

It is well known that the vowel sounds affect the consonantal sounds with which they are united. In Spanish, in Italian, in Swedish, and in Polish what are called the hard vowels (a, o, u) and the soft vowels $(i, e, \ddot{a}, \ddot{u})$ affect the pronunciation of the preceding gutturals g, k, c, ch.

Thus in Polish c is generally pronounced ts, but before the vowel i, which is occasionally written above the letter (\hat{c}) , it is like the Germ. tsch, but somewhat softer, as in the Italian ci or the Spanish ch in chupa. In this language consonants are said to have a hard or a soft pronunciation, according as they are followed by y or i respectively. The vowel i is the regular indication of a soft pronunciation for the preceding consonant. Thus in smier'e(shmierch) 'death,' and siano(shiano) 'hay,' s is pronounced like sh nearly, only softer. The hs of Mr. Wade's orthography is evidently this sound.

In Swedish k before i, e, y, \ddot{a} , and \ddot{o} , is softened in the same way; thus, $k\ddot{a}rlek$ ($ch\ddot{a}rlek$) 'love,' kif (chif) 'strife:' so also sk before a, o, u is hard, but before i, j, e, soft; thus, skjuta (shiuta) 'to shoot:' t is hard excepting when followed by j; thus, tjena (chena) 'to serve,' like the Germ. dienen; but the spelling is not changed, or this relationship would be well-nigh lost sight of.

Thus much has been said in anticipation of the time when the Chinese dialects or languages will be written by means of the Roman alphabet alone. It will then be easy to observe the connexion between the dialects, to see the radical syllable in each word, and to learn to read, if but one system of spelling be used for all the vernacular dialects.

Dialectic differences of pronunciation relate to the changes and modifications of single letters. In Chinese the initial letter in Roman type is modified or entirely changed,—the final letter is changed (as n to m or ng),—or a letter is added either before the initial or after the final (as n before y or j in the dialects about Shanghai, and before g in some Canton varieties); k, p, or t is added after the syllables affected by the "entering tone" in the Canton and the Hakka dialects, and n is not unfrequently transformed into

ng. The regular compounds (ai, au, iu) of the Mandarin are modified in the provincial dialects;—ai becoming e (i. e. \ddot{a} or \ddot{a}), au becoming \ddot{o} or o (i. e. aw in law), iu becoming iau or io. The Mandarin keeps the pure and sharp sounds of the consonants—k, p, t—the flat and heavy sounds of these letters (g, b, d) are not found in its pure pronunciation, but in the Peking and in some local patois they creep out.

The letters k, p, t are however aspirated, and hence arise k, p, and t. When k is very strongly aspirated it approximates to ch, and ch is often confounded with ts, especially in syllables in which an i follows the initial sound of ch or ts. The liquids l, m, n are very often interchanged in Chinese, but in southern Mandarin they are kept comparatively without alteration. In the south of China the initial s is used for sh in some vulgar dialects.

In treating of dialectic changes, the open syllables—those ending with a vowel—must be chiefly considered, for the short vowels which are produced by the closing of a syllable are very undefined, and are really very unimportant, being hardly distinguishable by a native. They may be compared to the Hebrew sheva and its compounds.

General changes in vowel and consonantal sounds.

- 1. The primary vowels—a, i, u—remain in open syllables in almost all the dialects of China. The Hokkien or Amoy dialect presents a few exceptions to this rule, and in some dialects the syllables made up with a consonant and one of these vowels admit another vowel between the two letters; e. g. ka changes to kia, ku to kiu, and ta to toa; but as a rule these letters are constant. And even in many closed syllables they remain in the different dialects. This is especially the case with the vowels i and u, king in one dialect never changes to kung or kang in another, but being in a closed syllable it is shortened, and from the imperfect articulation it is difficult to determine its exact quality,—in the Hokkien dialect it would seem to be like a short e. So also in the Peking dialect, ching of southern Mandarin becomes cheng; the difference however is hardly perceptible to a native. If the phrase and tone be idiomatic the slight variation in the quantity of a vowel is overlooked.
- 2. But although these vowels (a, i, u) in their simple state are unchanged in the various dialects, they are generally altered when in Mandarin they are found together in the same syllable, thus kiang of the Mandarin becomes keung, and kiung becomes kung in the Canton dialect. Their regular compounds—ai, au, and iu—in open syllables are almost always changed into their proper modifications—e, o (o or a), and ü—in the dialects. The closed syllables in ang in Mandarin change it into eung in Canton, and those in ien change into in. Sometimes a nasal ng is added where only n existed, e. g. jîn, 'man,' in Mandarin is yan in Canton and nyang in Shanghai. The y is dropped and the n changed to l in Fucheu, and it then makes lang. The jin is changed to nyin in Ningpo, and in Japanese the y is dropped and nin becomes the word for 'man.'

These principal changes serve to show the uniformity which exists in Chinese dialects; the diversity being always in accordance with some well established law of euphonic change.

The following simple system of finals in Chinese may serve as the standard of comparison. They are nearly all found in Mandarin. The vowels i and u may precede any of these finals and coalesce with them, forming often the initials y and w.

Hence by prefixing i and u (y and w)—ia, ia, ian, ian, ua, ua, ua, ua, uan, uan, iai, $ie\bar{u}$, $ie\bar{u}$, $ie\bar{u}$, $ie\bar{u}$, $ie\bar{v}$,

Comparative table of changes in some finals.

Mand. D.	Cant. D.	Shang. D.	Amoy D.
а	a	0	oa, ê .
ă	at, ap	ă	
an	am, an, on, un	an, on	oan, am
ang	eung, ong, ang	ang, ong	an, ieng, ong, un, ieng
	ai	i and yi	oe, e, ui, oa, i
i ĭ	op, ik	J.	it, ip, ek
in	am	ang, eng, ing	im
ing	ang, ing	ing	ieng, in, ian
u	0	Q	iu, ô
ŭ	ak	ŭ	ok, ut
ung	ung	ung	iếng, eng, iong, ong
ai	oi, ai		ai, oe
ei	ei, i	e, i, a ei	
ĕ	ak	ă	ap
en	in, im, ün	ân, ön, en	am
an	an	an	ng ·
ang	•	ąng	in
au	iu, o, u	0, 0	ô, o, a
0	, .,	a ·	e
eu	eu	a	ō
Q		•	
ç ŏ	ok	ŏ	ŏ, ap
iu		ą	-,
ii		ÿü	0
ii ii	iit	3	ě
$\ddot{u}n$		iin	•
üi		e	

3. The modifications of the consonants are similar in character. Mutes change into their corresponding letters,—a t may change to d, a p to b, a k to ch or g, a ch to ts, and occasionally to sh, a chang may become a tsiang or a shang in different dialects.

Comparative table of changes in some initials.

Mand. D.	Cant. D.	Shang. D.	Amoy D.		
h	f	h	h, k, or dropped		
hw	w	w	h		
8	s or sh	s or z	ch		
sh	sh or s	s, z, or l	ti		
shw		8			
ts	sh and ts	8	ch or k		
ch	ts occ.	ts	ti or s		
chw	ch	ts	chi		
\boldsymbol{k}	k	k	g		
kw	k	k	$\begin{bmatrix} g \\ k \end{bmatrix}$		
$oldsymbol{j}$	y	ny	$\mid j \mid$		
y	yor dropped	dropped	h, g, or dropped		
f	f	**	h, p, or b		
m	m		b^{\prime}		
\boldsymbol{n}	n	n or l	l or g		
p	p	p or b	<i>b</i>		
w	v, m, or ng	w	b or g		
ar (ear)	ni	nyi	hi		
mй (eye)	muk	$m \check{u}$	bak		
yĭ (one)	yat	nyĭ	chit		
chữ (bamboo)	chuk	сȟй	tiek		
kwang (light)		$kwo^{ m ng}$	kng		
mien (face)	min	$mi^{ m n}$	bien		
$y\ddot{u}$ (in)	ü	\boldsymbol{i}	họ		
shan (hill)	san	sa^{n}	soa ⁿ		
shin (spirit, body)	san, shan	zạng, sạn	sin, sieng		
shang (upper)	sheung	lang or zong	tieng		
nan (south)	nam	na^{n}	lam		

These attempts to compare the dialects of Chinese may serve to lead the way for an extensive comparison of them, which the author hopes some one in China may undertake and carry out more completely than he has done here.

APPENDIX VI.

On the weights, monies, measures, and times.

The Chinese weigh every thing that can be weighed,—money, wood, and liquids. Their chief circulating medium is Spanish dollars, which go by weight. The *Ferdinand* dollar is at a premium of $1-1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. The *Carolus* dollar at a premium of 7-8 per cent. Those bearing the stamp G are only received at a discount. Mexican and U.S.A. dollars are taken at par by foreigners.

The highest weight in money is a tael (liàng); then come the mace (ts'iên), the candareen (fān), and the cash (li). 3 taels=4.16 dol., but the equivalents vary; about 720 taels make 1000 dollars.

tael.	mace.	cand.	cash.	oz. troy.	gr. troy.	sterg.	dollars.
1	10	100	1000	1.208	579.84	6s. 8d.	1.389-1.398
	1	10	100		57.984	8 <i>d</i> .	.138139
		1	10		5.7984	.8 <i>d</i> .	

The common coin—the cash—of China is composed of 6 parts of copper and 4 of lead. Bullion is rated by its fineness, by dividing it into 100 parts called "touches." Sycee is cast into ingots, by the Chinese called "shoes," and these are stamped with the mark of the office that issues them, and the date of their issue. They are of different sizes, from $\frac{1}{2}$ a tael to 100 taels. Gold ingots of 10 taels=cir. 22—23.

In measures for dry and liquid goods, the pecul (tan), the catty (kin), and the tael (liàng) are used.

pecul.	catty.	tael.	lbs. av.	cvt.	lbs. troy.
1	100	1600	1331	1.0.21 1	162.0.8.1.
	1	16	I 1/3		

I ton=16 pec. and 80 catt. I cwt.=84 catt. I lb. av.= $\frac{3}{4}$ catt. In long measure the *covid* (*chĕ*), the *punt* (*tsān*) are used. The covid varies in the measurement of clothes, distances, and vessels; by the Mathematical Board in Peking it was 13.125 Eng. inches; in the Canton trade, 14.625 Eng. in.; by engineers of public works, 12.7 Eng. in.; and for distances, 12.1 Eng. in. nearly.

The li or Chinese mile=316 $\frac{1}{4}$ fathoms=1897 $\frac{1}{2}$ Eng. feet: 192 $\frac{1}{2}$ li=1 deg. of lat. or long., according to the Chinese, but the Jesuits made 250 li=1 deg., each li being=1826 ft. or r_0^1 of a French league.

In land measure 1200 covids=1 acre or meu, which contains 6600 sq. feet. The Chinese measure time by dividing the 24 hours of the day and night into twelve watches, and they begin to reckon from midnight. The twelve horary characters tsz, cheu, yin, meu, &c. (see Part I. p. 61) are employed for the purpose of indicating their watches. Tze being used for the two hours from 11 p. m. to 1 a. m.; cheu from 1—3.

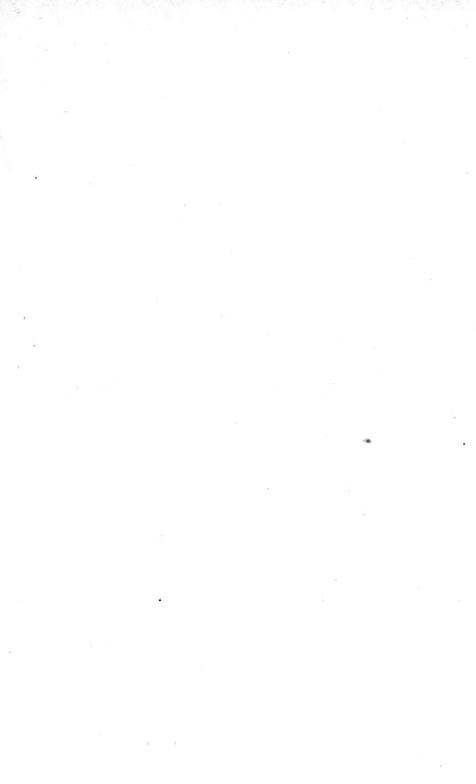
The character ching f prefixed to any horary character makes it signify the even number between the two hours; e. g. ching-tsz would be 12 o'clock at midnight, and kiau f being prefixed would make it mean 11 p. m.

But foreigners speak generally of yi-tién-chûng 'one stroke on the bell,' for 'one o'clock,' $\dot{q}r$ -tién-chûng 'two o'clock,' and the Chinese understand these expressions. $K\check{e} \not> 0$ means 'a quarter of an hour,' and $pw\acute{a}n \not> 0$ tién-chûng 'half an hour.'



PART II.

A CHINESE CHRESTOMATHY.



A SHORT INTRODUCTION

TO

CHINESE LITERATURE.

The literary works of the Chinese are very extensive, and relate to very many of the subjects on which the mind of man has been engaged at all periods of his history; the higher subjects, however, of mental science, logic and philology, have met with but little attention among them. The writers of China have drawn less from the works of foreigners than the writers of almost any nation; and this has arisen from the very nature of their position, cut off as they were at an early period from the great nations of the west of Asia, surrounded by wild tribes, who were unacquainted with letters, and proud of their superior cultivation, they rejected improvements of every kind from But if the mania for foreign notions and theories was unknown among them, the imitation of ancient models of their own became so morbid as to prevent the proper development of their mental strength and the improvement of the natural growth of their minds. The power of mental production consequently became limited to their own narrow sphere of experience; and although the rules of their ancient sages inculcated no such contracted maxims, their minds narrowed by continual imitation of old models (well enough suited to the periods in which they had their origin) began to look upon these models as simple embodiments of truth. Facts, however, compel the admission that great diversities of style in the prose, and of metre in the poetry of the Chinese have characterised different periods of their Their works have been remarkable rather for their extent than for the originality of thought or the acuteness of judgment displayed in them.

The Chinese themselves divide their literature under four general heads; viz. I. Kīng 榮, II. Sà 史, III. Tsà 子, IV. Tsǐ 美.

- I. The works placed under the first head we may call *classic*. They come under the following divisions: *a*) All sacred writings and the commentaries on them; *b*) All ritualistic writings and music; *c*) All works of a philological nature, as dictionaries and tone-books.
- II. The historical writings of all kinds come under the head of $S\dot{z}$, and also narrative and descriptive works, but not works on natural history.
- III. Under the head $Ts\hat{z}$ come, a) The writings of the ten sages of antiquity; b) All religious and moral works of the Tauists or Buddhists; c) All scientific works, and those upon the fine arts and trades; d) All encyclopædic works.

IV. The character Tsi signifies 'collection,' and under this head are collected works of the imagination and poems, but not novels.

This classification is that given in the Catalogue of the Imperial Library of Peking, but for the benefit of the student who will wish to be directed in his reading, the following arrangement of the different Chinese styles of composition will be found useful.

The most ancient and most concise style is that called,

- I. Kù-wận 🕂 💢 'ancient literature,' and this includes
 - 1. Kīng-shū 茶菜 畫: 'ancient classics, and works composed after their model;'
 - 2. Kù-shī 🚉 🚉 'ancient poetry, and modern poetry after that model.'
- II. Shî-wận 日寺 文 'modern literature,' and this includes
 - ı. Wận-chẳng 艾 章 'fine writing' or 'elegant essays;'
 - 2. Shī-fû 青节 月計 'odes and epics;'
 - 3. Yù-kī 言歌 生力 'edicts and official papers;'
 - 4. Shū-chă 🏥 👢 'epistles and letters of every kind;'
 - 5. Chuén-chí 🛱 🛨 'stories and romances;'
 - 6. Tsă-lŭ 菜隹 錑 'miscellanies, plays, &c.'

The spoken language, the Kwān-hwá 官 讀旨 'mandarin language,' is also divided into

- I. Pě kwān-hwá 北官語 or Kīng-hwá 京 | 'the language of Peking' or 'the northern mandarin;'
- 2. Nân kwān-hwá 南 古 'the southern mandarin,' which is also called the Ching-yīn 正 言 'correct sound;' and the 通 行 白 | T'úng-hîng-tĩ hwá, i. e. 'the language of universal circulation.'

The student will find in the following extracts passages to exemplify nearly all these different styles of composition, and in the study of them with the notes he will find much that differs, and very much to admire, in the rhythm that pervades each piece.

In the Wù-kīng, 'the five classics,' are contained the most ancient monuments of Chinese poetry, history, philosophy, and jurisprudence; and portions of these are probably among the most early records of history extant. Confucius, in the sixth century before Christ, collected them from different sources, and edited them without diminishing their correctness or originality. They usually stand in the following order:

I. The Yi-kīng 为 流元, or Classic of Changes, is a work on Cosmogony, based upon a theory of the combination and transmutation of certain figures formed by straight lines, sometimes entire and sometimes broken. Beginning with two figures, a broken straight line, and an unbroken one, the author, Fǔ-hí 大意, proceeded to form a number of combinations, until he made eight diagrams. They are thus given with their names:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
乾	兒	离惟	辰	些	士欠	艮	坤
k ʻi $\hat{e}n$	tüí	lî	ch in	$s\bar{\imath}n$	$k \grave{a} n$	$k \dot{q} n$	kw ' $\bar{a}n$

These are commonly called the pă-kwā, and represent some of the primary objects of nature, as heaven, earth, fire, water, &c. From these eight figures, sixty-four were constructed; and so by a regular system of combination and ever varying mutation, representative diagrams or figures have been formed for all the objects of nature *. The Chinese cannot give a very definite and clear account of the subject of this book †.

- 2. The Shū-kīng $\stackrel{\square}{=}$ |, of which pages 1 and 2 of the Chrestomathy afford a specimen, is the Historical Classic, being fragments of ancient history. It contains many excellent maxims on moral philosophy and political economy; as well as lessons of practical wisdom, based upon truth and humanity ‡.
- 3. The $Sh\bar{\imath}$ - $k\bar{\imath}ng$ $\stackrel{!}{\Box}$ $\stackrel{!}{\Box}$ $\stackrel{!}{\Box}$, or Classic of Odes, is a collection of ancient hymns and odes or ballads. They were collected by Confucius, and commented on by various writers §.
- 4. The Lì-kì ii l., Book of Ceremonies, is a compilation of laws relating to the manners and customs of life in the most ancient times, from which the Chinese of the present day derive many of their rules of conduct.
- 5. The Chūn-tsiú 春 秋, or Spring and Autumn Annals, is a work by Confucius himself. It contains the history of his native country, Lù-kwŏ 魯 國.

^{*} A Latin translation of this work, "ex lat. P. Regis interpretatione," was edited by Dr. Mohl, Stuttgard, in two vols. in 1832.

⁺ V. Entwurf einer Beschreibung der Chinesischen Litteratur, Schott: read in the Academy of Sciences in Berlin, 1850, and published in the "Abhandlungen" of the Academy, p. 302.

[‡] The following translations of this work have appeared. In French by Gaubil Le Chou-king. Paris, 1770. This was revised by De Guignes. It is said to be too free, and in many respects faulty. Another translation exists in Pauthier's Livres sacrés de l'Orient. Paris, 1841. And a good English translation by Dr. Medhurst with the native text interspersed. Shanghai, 1846. 80.

[§] There is a Latin translation of the Shi-king, "ex lat. P. Lacharme interpretatione," edited by Dr. Mohl. Stuttgard, 1830. And also a German translation into verse by F. Rückert. Chi-king, Chinesischen Liederbuch. Altona, 1833.

These are the five classics. The style in which they are written is broken and rude, unlike the compositions of later times, and this is internal evidence of their antiquity.

Next in estimation are the following:

All the above works are largely annotated and commented on by native writers, and by some of them with excellent style and ability. Among the chief commentators was $Ch\bar{u}-f\bar{u}-ts\hat{z}$ \uparrow , who lived in the thirteenth century. His writings are held in great estimation.

In the next rank comes the Cheū-lì 岸 中 or Ceremonies of the Cheu Dynasty; then the Hiaú-kīng 孝 堂 如 or Book of Filial Piety; Tsù-tsź 如 a Collection of Poems; and the Shān-haì-kīng 山 河 菜菜 or Book of Poetical Fictions, a sort of mythology, from which the poets of China draw some of their allusions.

hsi

^{*} An English translation of the Tá-hiö was appended, with the native text, to Dr. Marshman's *Clavis Sinica*. Serampore, 1814. 4°. A Latin and French translation exists by Pauthier, with the native text, Paris, 1837; and an English translation by G. B. Hillier, Hongkong, 1850.

[†] The Chung-yung was translated into Latin and French, accompanied by the native text, by Abel-Rémusat, in the Notices et Extraits: (vol. X.) Paris, 1817. 4°.

[‡] The Lún-yü was translated by Dr. Marshman into English, and published with the native text, under the title of, Works of Confucius at Scrampore, 1809. 4°.

[§] The writings of Mencius were translated literally into Latin by M. Stanislaus Julien, and published with the native text at Paris, in 3 vols. 1824.

^{||} The Sz-shü have been frequently translated;—into Latin by Intercetta; Paris, 1687: and by Noël also into Latin; Prague, 1711;—into English by Collie; Malacca, 1828. 82;—into German by Schott; 2 vols. Halle, 1828;—into French by Panthier; Paris, 1841.

In addition to these there are three ancient commentaries upon the $Ch\bar{u}n$ - $tsi\hat{u}$, which belong to the style of the $K\hat{u}$ - $w\bar{q}n$; and the works of $S\bar{z}$ - $m\hat{u}$ - $tsi\hat{e}n$ $\overline{\mu}$, the celebrated historian (B. C. 100), and those of several other noted writers in a similar style.

Contemporary with Confucius was Laù-tsż 之 j or Laù-kiūn 之 元, B. C. 604.* He was the founder of a school of philosophy, and took taù 元 'reason,' 'λόγος,' as the foundation of his system; he discoursed about lì 元, the 'principle of order' in the universe, and was the originator of the Tauist sect. He composed a work called Taú-tě-kīng 元 | 'Book of Reason and Virtue,' which has been translated into French, under the title of, "Le livre de la voie et de la vertu," by Professor Julien. Paris, 1842. 8°. For an account of his miraculous birth, &c., see Morrison's Dictionary, part I. vol. I. p. 707.

The third philosopher was $Si\bar{u}n-ts\dot{z}$ 大方, who belonged to the $J\hat{u}-ki\bar{u}$ 大京, 'the Confucian school.' He lived about B. C. 230, and was counted worthy of having his name associated with that of $M\phi ng-ts\dot{z}$ 大方 for a long period. His style is perspicuous and his knowledge correct, but he differed from $M\phi ng-ts\dot{z}$ (Mencius) in his ethics. $M\phi ng-ts\dot{z}$ held that the natural disposition of man is towards virtue; $Si\bar{u}n-ts\dot{z}$, that it is towards vice. His writings were of a politico-moral nature.

The fourth philosopher was Li- $ts \ge f$, a Tauist, who was contemporary with Lau-kiun (B. C. 585). His style is lucid and sublime, but he

^{*} The proper name of this philosopher was Li-pĕ-jang 李伯陽.

prefers the lofty to the true. Chwāng-ts\(\hat{z}\) is said to have written out a complete copy of his works.

The fifth philosopher was Kwàn-tsż 🙀 🕇, who belonged to the Pīng-kiā 💢 i, 'the military school.' He flourished in the third century B. C. His works are on the subjects of war and government.

The sixth philosopher was $H\bar{a}n$ - $f\bar{\imath}$ - $ts\dot{z}$ 草草 非子, called Han- $ts\dot{z}$, who lived about B. C. 200. He belonged to the $F\ddot{a}$ - $ki\bar{a}$ 注意, 'the law school.' Jurisprudence was the subject which he chiefly considered. His works commence with the aphorism: $p\ddot{u}$ $ch\bar{u}$ qr $y\hat{e}n$, $p\ddot{u}$ $ch\ddot{u}$, qr $p\ddot{u}$ $y\hat{e}n$, $p\ddot{u}$ $ch\bar{u}$ ng, 不 知 而 言 不 思, 'not to know and yet to speak is imprudent; to know and yet not to speak is unfaithful.'

The seventh philosopher was Hwaî-nan-tsz)住 京 子, who belonged to the Tsa-kia 宗能 宗, 'writers on various subjects.' He was the grandson of 宗 帝 Kaū-ti of the Han dynasty, B. C. 189. He wrote upon the origin of things.

The eighth philosopher was Yang-tsz 持一一, a Confucianist, who lived in the reign of Chīng-ti 元 , B. C. 1. He is said to have spoken little, for he had an impediment in his speech, but he was a great thinker and reader. He did not write much, but his works have received the commendation of a great authority, for Mà-twān-lîn, when comparing him with Siūn-tsz, says: "Siūn-kīng had great talents, but many failings; Yâng-hiūng was a man of limited abilities, but made few mistakes." The names of his two principal works are; Fā-yên 大士 言 'on laws,' and T'aí-hiuēn-kīng 大 之 知识, which is devoted to an explanation of the Yǐ-kīng.

The ninth philosopher was W_{qn} -chūng-tsż $\mathring{\mathcal{T}}$ $\mathring{\mathcal{T}}$, one of the best ancient writers of the Confucian school. His proper name appears to have been W_{qn} -t' u_{ng} $\mathring{\mathcal{T}}$.

The tenth philosopher, Hŏ-kw'àn-tsż 知 元, was a Tauist. He obtained this name, the Hŏ-capped philosopher, from the fact of his wandering about the mountains with the feathers of this bird in his cap or in his hair. His writings were first brought to light during the T'ang dynasty.

The works of these ten scholars, who are commonly called the Shǐ-tsż, are collected in a work called Shǐ tsż ts ūng-mǔ — J. ŽÍŽ Cherral Index of the Ten Philosophers.' Cf. Dr. Morrison's Dictionary, part I. vol. I. pp. 707, 708.

In addition to these general remarks on the higher class of Chinese literature we may content ourselves with a list of some of the principal works in the several departments which are likely to be more especially interesting to Europeans. The Chinese language is very rich in Buddhistic literature, as well as in works on jurisprudence, topography, history, and statistics. It possesses large encyclopædias and anthologies; researches in natural history, the healing art, and the fine arts; treatises on language and the meanings of words; on mathematics and the various applications of numbers, with works on the art of war. Poetry and the drama occupy a large place too, as do also works of fiction in the various grades of the romance and novel style. The industrial arts and trades, and the processes of manufacture extant among the Chinese are explained in detail in separate works *.

I. Ethics, politics, and mental science +.

- 1. ____ \$\frac{1}{2} \frac{\infty}{\infty} S\bar{a}n-ts\bar{z}-k\bar{t}ng, 'The three-character classic,' by Wang PI-heu, a Confucianist of the Sung dynasty (13th cent.). Annotated by Wang Tsin-shing: "The language is simple, the principles important, the style perspicuous, the reasoning clear."
- 2. Trien-tsź-wān, 'The book of 1000 characters,' by Cheu Hingtsz, A. D. 550. This is a common school-book. The 1000 characters were collected by Wang he-che, by command of an emperor of the Liang dynasty. The emperor gave them to Cheu Hing-tsz, and asked him to form them into an ode. He did so in a single night, and his hair turned gray in consequence. Various translations of this work exist in European languages; also in Japanese, Manchu, and Corean.
- 3. 幼 學 詩 Yiū-hiŏ-shī, 'Odes for the young.' A translation of this by Dr. Bridgman appeared in the Chinese Repository for Oct. 1835.
- 4. \(\sum_{\frac{1}{2}}\): Siaù-hiŏ, 'The learning for children,' was composed by \(\frac{1}{2}\): Chū-ts\(\tilde{z}\), who is held in estimation second only to Confucius himself. The opening sentence of the work shows its subject and tendency: "In ancient times the Siaù-hiŏ taught children every thing which concerned their daily life and conduct to parents, elders, superiors, teachers, and friends; in order to a due consideration of the fundamental laws which govern the person, the family, the state, and the universe."
- 5. 家寶全集 Kiā-paù-ts'uên-tsĭ, 'A complete collection of family jewels.' Miscellaneous moralities, instructions, and advice, in 32 vols., by

^{*} Large collections of Chinese books are deposited in the Libraries of the British Museum, the Royal Asiatic Society, the University College, London, the Bodleian Library, Oxford, the East India House, and King's College, London. The magnitude of these collections is in the order here given; from the British Museum, which contains upwards of 30,000 vols., to King's College, which possesses about 1200 vols. Almost all good works in ordinary Chinese literature will be found in one or another of these institutions.

[†] To these may be added several works already mentioned among the classics.

T'iēn-kî-shǐ 天 基 石, published in the time of K'ang-hi. An extract from this work was given by Thom in his Chinese Speaker, with a translation.

- 6. 里 部 唐 訓 Shing-yû kwāng-hiūn, 'Amplification of the sacred edict.' Sixteen maxims by the emperor K'ang-hi, amplified by his son, the emperor Yûng-ching, and paraphrased by a mandarin. The Rev. Dr. Milne made a translation of this work.
- 7. 家庭 講 話 Kiā-t'īng-kiàng-hwá, 'Discourses for the family hall.'
 These are in good mandarin style, and are very suitable for practice in reading. (King's Coll.)*
- 8. L L R A T'ai-shang kàn-ying-piēn +, 'The book of rewards and punishments.' This is a very celebrated Tauist tract. T'ai-shang, 'the sublime,' is an epithet of Lau-kiūn; see p. 7. of this Introduction. The work consists of a number of sayings on the duties of man, with a list of the rewards and the punishments connected therewith.
- 9. 金剛經 Kīn-kāng-kīng, 'The diamond classic.' A Buddhist work in 1 vol.
- 10. 前文 信贷 Kīng-sín-lǔ, 'The book of the revered faith.' A collection of sayings and exhortations of the chiefs of the Tauist and Buddhist religions. The praises of Kwān-yīn 韓見 言, the merciful goddess, are given in rhyme to be sung by the faithful. Its precepts are said to act on the human mind like a clock at midnight, they awaken the devout soul, and its doctrines enlighten the darkened eye of the mind.
- ing the heart.' This work consists of elegant extracts from the moral writings of the Chinese. A translation appeared in Spanish by P. Navarette; Madrid, 1676. A notice of the work may be seen in the Chinese Repository.

^{*} When the name of a Library is noted, it is not to be inferred that the work is to be found in that collection alone.

[†] A translation of this work was made by Prof. Julien, and published under the title of, "Le livre des Récompenses et des Peines" par Julien, 1841.

II. Mathematics and astronomy.

- is a translation of Euclid's Elements of Geometry, by Paul Seu, a high mandarin, and P. Ricci, the Jesuit missionary, in 4 or 6 vols. The original work is very scarce, but copies exist in manuscript, and a new edition has recently been printed by the Protestant missionaries at Shanghai. (Bodleian.) (King's Coll.)
- 15. 唇 裳 考 成 Liĕ-siāng k'aù-ch'îng, 'Mathematical tables for astronomical purposes.' (Bodleian.)
- 16. 製文 理 精 第三 Sú-lì tsīng-yūn. A treatise on mathematics, containing the science of Europe in the 18th century. (Bodleian.)

III. Language and the meanings of words.

- 18. 青克 文 Shwŏ-wḍn. A dictionary of the ancient characters, arranged under 540 elementary characters, which was published during the Hán 東 dynasty, B.C. 150. The author's name was Hū-shīn 青午 順, 'official government.' (Brit. Mus.)
- 19. Tü-piën. A dictionary of the characters, arranged according to 542 radicals, in 30 books, by Ku ye-wang. It was published in the Liang dynasty, A. D. 530. It is the basis of the Chinese-Japanese Dictionary used in Japan. The pronunciation of characters is according to the fân-tsĭ system.
- 20. If If Wû-kū yùn-suí, 'The tonic dictionary, called the Wû-kū,' in 32 vols., by Chin Siēn-sāng. This is one of the best dictionaries on the "tones" which exist in Chinese. Dr. Morrison made it the basis of his Syllabic Dictionary, and gives some particulars respecting it in the preface to Part II. of his dictionary, q. v.
- A dictionary according to the radicals. (King's Coll.)
- 22. 何文 词 序 Pei-wận-yún-fù, 'Thesaurus of literary phrases,' compiled by order of the emperor Kang-hī. Seventy-six of the literati were engaged in preparing it, and it took them seven years to complete it. It was published in 1711, in 131 vols. This Thesaurus is perhaps the

most extensive collection which exists of the words and phrases of any language. M. Callery commenced working this mine in 1842, and published the first part of an encyclopædia of the Chinese language in 1846. The work was to consist of about ten large volumes, and it was expected that sixteen years would be occupied in the execution of his project, which he was unfortunately obliged to relinquish. (Brit. Mus.)

- 23. K ang-hī-tsź-tièn, 'The dictionary of K'āng-hī,' the first emperor of the present dynasty. It is generally in 32 vols. The meanings are very good. The work is universally used in China, and constitutes the great national work of reference for the language. Dr. Morrison commenced his dictionary by translating K'ang-hi's lexicon.
- 24. 清文 鑑: Ts ing-wận-kiến, 'Mirror of the Manchu-Tartar language,' in 26 vols. (Several works of this kind are in the Brit. Mus.)
- 25. 回 孝文 信語 Hwüî-kiaú-sŭ-yù, 'Mahommedan Proverbs (in Arabic and Chinese).'
- 27. 初集版: Chō-tsǐ ki-mūng, 'Explanations for beginners,' in 20 vols. It contains definitions of the terms employed by the student of Wān-chāng ('elegant essays').

IV. Jurisprudence.

- 28. 大 消費 往 何 Tá-ts'īng lǔ-lí, 'The laws of the Tá-ts'īng dynasty,' i. e. the penal code of the present or Tartar dynasty of China, in 40 vols. A translation of this work was made by Sir George T. Staunton, Bart., F. R. S. 4°. London, 1810.
- 29. 科·切 探·加 Kō-châng-t'iaû-li, 'The laws and regulations of the Examination Hall,' in 18 vols. It is published every ten years, and its contents will supply the best phrases which are employed with reference to the literati.
- 30. Ti i Tá-ts'ing hwiű-tièn, 'Official details relating to the civil code and the statistics of the Tá-ts'ing dynasty,' in 260 vols. An interesting account of this work is given in Sir John Davis' work on the Chinese. See Knight's edition of 1836, vol. II. pp. 180, 181.

V. Medicine and materia medica.

31. 本 豈 鋼 目 Pạn-tsaù kāng-mǔ, 'General outline of natural his-

^{*} The term 'rivers and lakes' means the 'provinces' of Kiang-si, Kiang-nan, Hu-pĭ, and Hu-nan, which are noted for beautiful scenery and commerce.

There are many other works on medicine, but their contents are uninteresting to Europeans, because they are wanting in science.

VI. History and statistics.

The affairs of each dynasty have been recorded by the imperial historiographers, and these state papers are the sources whence the various histories of China have been derived.

- 32. III. T'ûng-tièn, 'A complete directory to history and politics,' in 200 chapters, by Tô-yiú II of the T'ûng II dynasty. It was this work that Ma Twan-lin proposed to complete in his Wûn-hiën-t'ûng-kiaû, which may be looked upon as a continuation of the T'ûng-tièn.
- 33. III | T'ûng-kiến-kãng-mũ, 'The comprehensive mirror with a complete index,' in 120 vols. The history of China, edited by Chu-hi, the philosopher and annotator of the Canonical Books, who lived about the middle of the 13th century. This work is not so much an independent production as a convenient form of the T'ung-kién, which appeared above a century before, by the renowned Sz-ma-kwang. The emperor Yīng-tsūng 共 点 (A.D. 1064-67) had commanded the royal historiographer Sz-ma-kwang to compose a succinct history of China with correct chronology, making use of the historical works extant, and especially the Sz-ma-kwang finished his work in 1084, and laid it at the feet of Ying-tsung's successor, Shîn-tsung it the title of T'ung-kien, 'comprehensive mirror' (of events). It begins with the earliest historical period, and comes down to the beginning of the 2nd Sung dynasty, including a period of 1362 years. Facts only are related, the reader is left to form his own judgment upon them. Impressed with the worth of the T'ung-kien, and wishing to increase its usefulness, Chu-hi prefaced the accounts given in detail with a summary, but without altering the sense. These summaries, which are printed in large characters, are followed by the detailed account and a commentary; thus the work is, as it were, enclosed in a network, and on this account it obtains the name of Kang-mu (v. 31).
- 34. Ar-shǐ-yǐ-shí, 'The twenty-one historians.' A complete history of China, in 282 vols., from the highest antiquity down to the end of the Yuên dynasty. This is the work of twenty-one imperial historiographers, whose duty it was to note down the events of each reign as they occurred, preparatory to publication in the succeeding reign.

- 35. Lie Shi-kì, 'Records of history,' in 130 chapters, by Sz-ma-tsien, who flourished B. C. 104. This book contains the history of about 3000 years. It begins with Hwang-ti in the year B. C. 122, in the Han dynasty.
- 36. 古文斯義 Kù-wận sĩ-ĩ, 'The meanings of ancient literature discriminated,' in 16 vols. 8°. This work consists of historical fragments in an elegant and much admired style, with explanatory notes.
- 37. 和 | 會 禁 Kāng-kiến-hwűí-tswàn, 'Mirror of history,' by Fung-cheu siēn-sāng 原 洲 (surnamed Wâng), in 34 vols. (v. 2994).
- 38. | | \$\fightarrow{\beta}{\beta}\beta\beta\left[K\bar{a}ng-ki\beta n\beta-ch\bar{\bar{\chi}}, 'History made easy,' is an abridgment of the \$T^*\alpha ng-ki\beta n-k\bar{a}ng-m\bar{\chi}\$ (33). It was the work of three scholars of the present dynasty, and was finished in 1711, in 36 vols.
- 39. 歷代 | 史 Lǐ-tai kién-shí, 'Mirror of history through successive ages.'
- 40. 東世界 Tāng-hwā-lǔ, 'Chronicles of the flower of the east.' The official history of the Imperial house at present reigning in China. The last edition was published in 1820, in 16 vols.

VII. Biographical notices.

- 41. 歷代名臣奏議 Lǐ-taí mîng-chīn tseú-î, 'Memorials of the celebrated statesmen of successive dynastics,' in 350 chapters.
- 43. E. J. Tang tsaî-tsì ch'uén, 'An account of the men of genius of the Tang dynasty,' by Sin Wan-fang, in 8 vols. M. Prof. Bazin says of this author, that he has a very good style of composition; that he adds to each biographical notice proper observations and criticisms; and that when he examines the qualities and the faults of the poets, he is always in the right *.
- 44. 草 荒 Hiō-t'úng, 'A general view of learning,' in 12 vols. It contains memoirs of the leading members of the sect of Confucius and extracts from their works, with a view to combating the errors of the Tauists and Buddhists.
- 45. 百家姓 +Pě-kiā-síng, 'All the family names.' 1068 characters are

^{*} V. Siècle des Youên, p. 58.

[†] Although the word $p\check{e}$, '100,' is used, it stands for 'all,' just as $p\check{e}$ - $kw\bar{a}n$ means 'all the officials.' This work contains 454 surnames.

contained in it, of which 510 are different. This work contains the ancient surnames of the Chinese, many of which are still in use. In some editions the origin of these names is given in notes. It is a school-book, and uninteresting to foreigners.

VIII. Geography, topography, and statistics.

- 46. 大清一 常元 Li Tá-ts ing yǐ-t úng-chí, 'A complete account of the Tá-tsing (the present) empire.' A geographical work of great importance and value. It consists of 500 chapters in 240 vols. It contains various matters connected with topography and statistics. Each province has its own descriptive work of this kind. (Brit. Mus.)
- 47. 河野 國 声 Haì-kwŏ t'û-chí, 'Geography of the world,' in 24 vols., by the late Commissioner Lin, who caused the "Opium War" by burning all that drug then in port at Canton.
- 48. A Signification of the world, in 6 vols. imp. 8°., by the Lieutenant-Governor of the province of Fü-kien. It contains very good maps of the various countries of the world, and the descriptions are tolerably correct. His Excellency was assisted by a European in making the compilation. (King's Coll.)
- 49. 展 圖 記 Kwàng-yû-t'û-kì, Geographical descriptions with maps,' by Lũ-yīng-yûng [茎 庶 [馬, in 24 kiuen or books. It was composed during the 明 Ming dynasty, when China was divided into 15 provinces, not into 18 as at present. The 25th book contains some account of the 'outside barbarians,' waî-ī 夕 夷, and these include Japan, Korea, Liu-kiu, Si-fan or Tangutia, Mongolia, Tonquin, Cochin-China, and Siam.
- 50. (韩國 記 Fǔ-kwǒ kì, 'An account of Buddhist countries,' by 法原 Fǎ-hièn, a Buddhist of the earlier Sung dynasty (A. D. 422). He set out from Ch'àng-ān 長安 in the year 405, during the Tsín 皆dynasty, and traversed thirty countries on his way to India: (v. Imperial Catalogue, large copy, kiuen 71. p. 4.)

IX. Mythology.

51. The fine Shîn-siēn-kiēn, 'Mirror of the divine immortals.' It contains the myths relating to the Tauist deities and deified saints. The story of Shakyamuni is told in the 5th chapter, and the work contains other matter which is interesting on account of the bold independence with which the stories are related.

X. Poetry.

- 52. 全唐詩 Ts'uên T'ang shī, 'The poetry of the T'ang dynasty,' in goo chapters. (Brit. Mus.)
- 53. 李太白集 Lì T'ai-pǐ tsǐ, 'Lì-t'aí-pǐ's collection of poetry,' by Lì-t'aí-pǐ of the T'ang dynasty*.
- 54. 東坡全 集 Tūng-pō ts'uên-tsĭ, 'A complete collection of Tung-po's odes,' in 15 chapters, by Su-shĭ of the Sung dynasty *.

XI. Painting, engraving, &c.

XII. The drama.

- 56. The hundred plays of the Yuen dynasty.' A celebrated collection of dramas. The style is antiquated collequial, but clear. Several of these have been translated by Prof. Bazin, Prof. Julien, and Sir John Davis. See Théâtre Chinois by Prof. Bazin.
- 57. 終白 変 Chuī-pǐ-k'iú, 'A collection of dramas,' in 43 vols. (Brit. Mus. and R. A. S.) (For k'iú, v. sheet, 1263.)

XIII. Works of fiction.

The following names of novels are worth inserting. It is by reading such works that the student will form a more lively conception of the genius of the Chinese people, their customs, manners, and principles of action. The romances are classified by the Chinese according to the quality of the composition and the nature of the story. They distinguish especially between siaù-shwŏ \(\frac{1}{2} \), lit. 'small talk,'=novels of the lower order, pure fictions; and hiēn-shū \(\frac{1}{2} \), lit. 'leisure book,'= romances founded on stories from real life and history. These they classify under the ten grades of talent (tsaî \(\frac{1}{2} \)) exhibited in their composition. The first or Ti-yi-tsaî shū is the

58. ___ Sān-kwŏ-chí, 'History of the three kingdoms,' a work in 20 small volumes. The style, which is terse, is very much admired for its classic elegance. The story is founded upon the history of the three

^{*} Lì T'ai-pi and $S\bar{u}$ $T\bar{u}ng$ - $p\bar{v}$ are the two great and popular poets of China. Their surnames are Lì and $S\bar{u}$; T'ai-pi and $T\bar{u}ng$ - $p\bar{v}$ are their names.

kingdoms and the civil wars in China, which lasted nearly a century, from A. D. 168—265. The author's name was Lo Kwan-chung, who founded it upon a real history by Chin-sheu of the Tsin dynasty. See pp. 17—20, of the native text, for a specimen of this work. A translation of a portion of it has been made into French by M. Theod. Pavie, from the Tartar version.

- 59. 大清牛 傳 Shwii-hù chuén, 'History of the shores' or 'History of the robbers,' by Shi Nai-gan, in 20 vols. 12°. This appeared originally in the time of the Mongol emperors, and was reprinted in 1650. It is a romance of the comic kind, and a good specimen of the style of language used two or three centuries ago; it is therefore somewhat antiquated, and the style is very prolix, a proof probably of its being in the colloquial idiom. A specimen is to be found in the native text of the Chrestomathy, pp. 13—16.
- 60. 17 If Haú-kiú chuén, 'The story of the fortunate union,' in 4 vols. 12°. The style and contents of this work are admirable. A translation of it was published in England, edited by Bishop Percy in 1761, under the title of "The Pleasing History." But in the elegant translation of it by Sir John F. Davis in 1829, the English reader may find a really pleasing and instructive story, and on the accuracy of the translation he may rely: pp. 8—12, of the native text, afford a specimen of its style, which abounds in good colloquial expressions, though some of them are perhaps antiquated.
- 61. A. This is a popular work in the Peking dialect. A portion of it was published in Thom's Chinese Speaker in 1846.

XIV. Agriculture and weaving.

64. 農 政 全 書: Nūng-chíng ts'uên-shū, 'A complete work on agriculture,' in 60 chapters, by Shü Kwang-hí of the Mîng 明 dynasty. (Brit. Mus.)

65. 耕 和 圖 吉寺 Kāng-chǐ t'â-shī, 'Plates and odes on agriculture and weaving,' by Leu-chau of the Sūng 六 dynasty.

XV. Encyclopædias and compilations.

- 67. 文獻 老 Wān-hiến t'ũng-k'aù, 'Thorough examination into antiquity,' by Mà Twân-lîn 馬 点点 点点, who lived A. D. 1275. It consists of 348 chapters; about 110 vols.; and includes articles upon ancient government and tenures, ancient literature and writing, and many subjects not even noticed in other works. A large amount of discrimination is displayed in the book, and it will well repay the patient student's toil*. (Brit. Mus.)
- 68. In the Emperor K'ang-hi. This is an encyclopædia, and contains a very full account of subjects which come within the sphere of Chinese experience. It would afford a very large number of phrases for a good dictionary of the Chinese language. (E. I. Comp.)
- 69. 潛作 美 書 Ts'iên-kiŏ-liű-shū. This is an encyclopædia, like the preceding. It contains a full account of various matters connected with the antiquities of China. (E. I. Comp.)
- 70. The great classic of Yûng-lö, the 3rd emperor of the Mîng dynasty, whose reign commenced A.D. 1403. He was the reviver of literature. It consists of 22,877 chapters, and contains many entire works, the original editions of which are lost.
- 71. 百里恒 Shāng-kù-pién-làn, 'A convenient index for merchants,' in 6 vols. This small work is calculated to prove of use to the merchant and the traveller.
- 72. 四直全 影響 Sź-kū tś uên-shū tsūng-mū, 'A general catalogue of all the books in the four departments,' published by imperial authority, in 112 vols. 12°. There is an abridgment of this in 8 vols., which was published in 1774. (Both in Brit. Mus.)

^{*} M. Rémusat calls this work, in the Appendix to his Grammaire, "Le plus beau monument de la littérature chinoise, vaste collection de mémoires sur toutes sortes de sujets, trésor d'érudition et de critique, où tout ce que l'antiquité chinoise nous a laissé de matériaux sur les religions, la législation, l'économie morale et politique, le commerce, &c. &c. &c., vaut à lui seul toute une bibliothèque."

The above list will guide the student in his purchase of books and in his study of Chinese literature. It remains for us to notice the different styles of composition which will be met with, and to say a few words on the metres of Chinese verse.

The style of the kù-wḍn requires a separate study; there is a massive grandeur about it, which is wanting in the lower orders of prose composition. The term itself,—'ancient literature,'—is peculiarly appropriate, for the character of this style bears the stamp of antiquity.

The modern style of elegant essay writing,—wan-chang,—by expertness in which the government officials attain their position and their literary rank, may be characterised as the antithesis of the ku-wan; the latter being terse and expressive, pregnant in meaning and swelling with the thought, while the former is diffuse and expansive, rhythmical and smooth, but barren of fresh ideas, and elaborate only in the mode of expression. The ku-wan labours to exhibit the idea succinctly in a few words; the wan-chang repeats the idea, and shows it under many forms of expression; the former is the sterling gold, the latter is the same changed into the cumbrous equivalents of copper and brass; and the genuine pearl is often hidden among the spurious imitations which accompany it. Specimens of the wan-chang, as well as of the other styles, are given in Gonçalves' $Arte\ China$. Of the ku-wan, the extracts given in the Chrestomathy, from the Shu-kang and the Sz-shu, will afford specimens.

The style of ordinary books on history, topography, &c., is a medium between the ku-wqn and the wqn- $ch\bar{a}ng$. Less desire for elegant composition prevails in this style; and it approaches what has been called the business style, which is the idiom of the government papers, edicts, and official documents. There is a simplicity, but at the same time a stiffness and precision about it. The Letter of the Commissioner Lin to the Queen of England and several other papers will be found in the text of the Chrestomathy to exemplify this style.

The literary composition in novels varies very much; some novels, such as the $S\bar{a}n$ - $kw\check{o}$ $ch\acute{a}$, are classical. The style of this work, however, is less terse than the $k\grave{u}$ - $w\rlap/a n$, and dispenses in a great measure with the particles employed in that style, while it approaches the $k\grave{u}$ - $w\rlap/a n$ in vigour of expression, although the subjects treated of are very different. The romance style thus varies from the high classical novel, down to the common story expressed in every day colloquial. The extracts from the $S\bar{a}n$ - $kw\check{o}$ $ch\acute{a}$, the $Ha\^{a}$ -k- $i\^{a}$ $chu\acute{e}n$, and the $Shw\ddot{u}$ - $h\grave{u}$ $chu\acute{e}n$ will exemplify these remarks. But the language of conversation will form the first object of attention, for it is by this that the student will communicate with his learned $si\bar{e}n$ - $s\bar{a}ng$. This style it is which it has been our object to elucidate. The pages of mandarin dialogues and phrases display a great number of specimens of the mandarin or $kw\bar{a}n$ - $hw\acute{a}$, in which, with all its variations, (and it has many distinct phases,) great simplicity of style and construction will be found to prevail.

The style and metre of modern verse among the Chinese differ materially

from those of ancient poetry. The common metre of the $Sh\bar{\imath}-k\bar{\imath}ng$, 'Book of Odes,' is four syllables, and the style is cognate with that of the $k\bar{\imath}-w\bar{\imath}n$. Chinese verse consists sometimes of four, sometimes of five, and sometimes of seven or eight syllables; they are regulated by the tones, which, when in this connection, are divided into even and deflected. If we suppose a to represent the even tone, b the deflected tone, and c the one or the other (common), the verse of four lines and seven or eight syllables would run thus:

c-a-c-b-b-a-a	c- b - c - a - b - b - a			
c- b - c - a - a - b - b	c-a-c-b-a-a-b			
c- b - c - a - b - b - a	c-a-c-b-b-a-a			
c- a - c - b - b - a - a .	c- b - c - a - b - b - a .			

"There are six different sorts of poetry: 1st, $F\bar{u}ng$, which contains the principles of ancient sages for the promotion of social order. 2nd, $F\hat{u}$ $\exists \vec{k}$, which contains a plain statement of virtues and vices. 3rd, $P\hat{i}$, which satirizes by allusions, when the poet is afraid to speak plainly. 4th, $H\hat{i}ng$, figurative allusion to encourage those who dislike flattery. 5th, $Y\hat{a}$, which contains correct rules and sentiments for posterity. 6th, $S\bar{u}ng$, which contains direct praise of virtuous deeds *."

On the subject of the various styles of prose and metrical compositions, the student may refer to Mr. Consul Meadows' "Desultory Notes on China;" Allen, London, 1847; and "The Poetry of the Chinese" by Sir John Davis, Bart., &c. &c., which appeared in the Transactions of the Royal Asiatic Society.

The passages printed in native character may now be read by the help of the dictionary, notes, and translations.

The sounds of the characters and all the other aids have been given separate from the text, because we think that, while all needful help should be given, the *textus nudus* should be distinct, to enable the student to test his acquirements; and, as a College text-book, it is necessary that the text, without notes, should be read in class.

^{*} See Dr. Morrison's Dict., Part III. p. 324.

The following is a list of the passages in native character in the Chrestomathy, which are also given in Roman type, with translations and notes.

Index to the native text.

I.	Extract from the $Sh\bar{u}$ - $k\bar{i}ng$ (1) and (2)				Pag	es r and 2	
2.	Epitaph of $K^*\hat{\imath}$ - $ts\hat{z}$					2	
3.	Extract from the $S\dot{z}$ -sh $\bar{i}i$ (1), (2), and (3)					3-5	
4.	Extract from the $Shing-y\grave{u}$ (1) and (2)					6 and 7	
5.	Extract from the Haú-k'iû chuến (1), (2),	(3), (4), an	d (5)		8-12	
6.	Extract from the Shwui-hù chuến (1), (2)	, (3),	and (4)		1316	
7.	Extract from the Sān-kwŏ chí (1), (2), (3)), and	(4)			17-20	
8.	Selections from Æsop's Fables, translated	(1) ar	ad (2)		•	21 and 22	
9.	Official Papers (Lin's Letter to Queen Vic	toria)	}			23 and 24	
10.	Official Papers (a Notice and a Petition)					25	
ı.	Official Papers (Supplementary Treaty, 18	44)				26	
12.	Dialogues and Phrases in Mandarin (1), (2	2), (3)), and	(4)		2730	
ιз.	Extract from the Ching-yīn tsuí-yaú					31	
۲4.	Epistolary Style	•				32	
ι 5.	Poetical Extracts (Ancient and Modern)					33	
ι6.	Proverbs					34	
17. Six pages lithographed come under the above heads thus:—							
pp. 9 and 10 under 13; pp. 11, 12, and 13 under 7; p. 14 under 8.							

Note—The translations of the passages are in some parts free, because it was impossible to make them literal; in other parts the English may have suffered from a literal rendering. In every case the wants of the young students have been kept in view; and the author hopes that, with the aid here given and the assistance which may be derived from the dictionary, all the passages in Chinese text will be rendered clear to his intelligence.

1. Extract from the Shū-kīng (1), v. native text, page 1.

Shū-kīng. Yû-shū. Yi Tsi. Tí yǔ: "Laî Yù! jù yi ch'āng yên." a. 2. Yù paí, yǔ: "Tū Tí / yû hô yên ? yû sź jǐ tsz-tsz." Kaū-yaū yǔ: a. 19. b. 5. "Hū! jû-hô?" Yù yǔ: "Hûng-shwüì t'aū t'iēn haú-haú, hwaî-shān siāng-lìng, hiá-mîn hwān-tién, yû shîng sź-tsaí, suî-shān kàn-mǔ; kí b. 18. Yĭ tseú shū siēn shĭ, yû kiŭ kiù-ch'uēn, k'ù sź-haì, siún k'iuèn kweì k'ü c. 3. ch'uēn; kí Tsǐ pó tseú shū kiēn-shǐ siēn shǐ, maú ts'iēn yiù wû, hwā C. 19. kű; chīng mîn naì lǐ, wán pâng tsŏ í." Kaū-yaū yǔ: "Yû! sī jù d. 4. ch'āng yên." Yù yǔ: "Tū Tí! shín naì tsaí weí." Tí yǔ: "Yû!" Yù d. 19. yü: "Gān jù chì, weî kì weî kāng, k'î pĭ chǐ; weî túng peī yíng î chí, e. 3. ì chaú sheú Sháng-tí, t'iēn k'î shīn míng yúng hiū." Tí yǚ: "Hū! e. 20. Chīn-tsaī! Lîn-tsaī! Lîn-tsaī! Chīn-tsaī!" Yù yǔ: "Yû!" Tí yǔ: f. 4. "Chīn tsŏ chín kù-kwāng àr-mŭ: yû yŭ tsó-yiú yiù mîn, jù yĭ; yû f. 17. yŭ siuēn-li sź-fāng, jù weî; yû yŭ kwān kù-jîn chī siáng, ji, yŭ, sīng, g. 3. shîn, shān, lûng, hwâ, ch'ûng tsŏ hwüí tsūng-î, tsaù-hò fàn-mì fù-fǔ g. 20.

The Shu-king is the most ancient record possessed by the Chinese, and is consequently very fragmentary. It is said to have consisted originally of 100 §§., forty-two of which are lost; and some of those which remain are considered to be spurious. All the copies which could be found were burnt by the Emperor Chi of the Tsin dynasty (B. C. 220), because this work kept alive the desire to return to the ancient régime. But on the revival of literature under Wăn-tí of the Han dynasty (B. C. 178), the text was recovered from an old blind man who could repeat it from memory and understood its meaning. This imperfect restoration was afterwards improved on Kung-wang finding in the ruins of the house of K'ung-tsz (Confucius) a copy of the original, written in the ancient (tadpole) character. These are the sources of the present editions. The style is very quaint, and the meaning compressed into few words. This renders the sense obscure in many passages; the commentators are at a loss to explain it sometimes, and few of the Chinese care to understand its meaning, though the book itself is held in great veneration by them.-The first book is called "the Book of Yu," because it contains some account of the affairs of the Emperor Shun, who took the designation Yu on coming to the throne.

This section is called Yi-Tsi, because Yu mentions the names of these two men as having helped him in his great works.

Ti (a.11) 'the Emperor,' i. e. Shuna (B.C. 2200?). The commentary from which these notes are derived was written during the Sung dynasty (A. D. 1200). This passage is evidently a continuation of the last section. Kau-yau had been counselling the Emperor on the knowledge of mankind and on giving peace to the people, and then the Emperor asked Yu to speak. Yu replies: "What can I say more? I always strive to do my duty to the utmost." Kau-yau asks how he does that. Hūng-shwūi (b. 10) 'the flood.' This has led some to think the Flood of Noah was intended, but there is no evidence to prove it; great inundations have at different times devastated China. Sz'-tsaī (b. 27) 'the four vehicles,' by which is meant boats, carriages, sledges, and spiked-shoes. Siēn-shī (c. 6) 'fresh food' or 'fish and flesh to eat.' This includes fish and fowl, and the flesh of the tortoise and of other animals. The term kiū-ch'uēn (c. 10), 'the nine streams,' means 'all the rivers.'

Yu exemplified the meaning of daily exertion by showing how he had persevered to

Translation of the Extract from the Shū-kīng (1), v. native text, page 1.

The Shu-king or Classic of History *. The book of Yü. The section called Yi and Tsi. The Emperor said: "Come Yu! You also throw light on the subject!" Yu bowed and said: "Good, my liege! what can I say in addition? but I aim daily to do the utmost." Kau-yau exclaimed: "Well, how is that?" Yu replied: "When the mighty waters rose to the skies with a swelling inundation, encompassing the mountains and overtopping the hills, and the poor people were sinking in despair, I adapted for the occasion the four methods of conveyance, and all along the mountains I cut down wood, and, with YI, I introduced the various kinds of fish and flesh to eat; I formed the nine streams, and led away the waters to the four seas; I deepened the ditches and brooks, and led away their waters to the streams. With Tsi I sowed seed, and brought all this into notice; as it was difficult to get food, fresh food of animals was given to eat. I exerted myself to promote the exchange of goods and to convert things into money. All the people then had food to eat, and all the nations were well governed." Kau-yau said: "Very good! Instructive are your excellent words!" Yu proceeded: "Yes! my liege! Cautious should those on the throne be!" The Emperor replied: "Right!" Yu continued: "Rest in the judgment your mind comes to; only be exact, tranquil, and firm; the ministers should be upright, then whenever any action of state arises, the result will fully answer to your expectations and schemes, and so it will be clearly shown that you are receiving God's command, and Heaven, in making known its will, will employ great blessings." The Emperor said: "Right! Ah! ministers and attendants! How important they are!" Yu remarked again: "Quite right!" The Emperor proceeded: "You ministers are my legs and arms, my ears and eyes: when I desire to assist my people, you help me; when I wish to extend my power every where, you act for me; when I wish to behold the models descended from the ancients,—the sun, the moon, the stars, the mountains, the dragon, the variegated insects, which were painted, the sacred vases (with the monkey depicted upon them), the water-plant, the fire, the white rice, the hatchet, the double-hook, which were all embroidered with the five colours upon the five kinds of silk to make the clothing,-you

carry off the waters of the deluge, and so he communicated the admonition to care and industry, as pre-requisites to success in government. $G\bar{a}n\,j\bar{u}'\,ch\bar{t}$ (i. e. 4) 'rest where you arrive,' i. e. 'be satisfied with the judgment your mind naturally comes to, and let it not be affected by sinister motives afterwards.' $J\bar{t},\,y\bar{u}',\,dc.\,(i.\,g.\,i7)$, 'sun, moon, &c.' These figures were worked in colours upon the court dresses, as symbols of the deities, and of the qualities of filial piety, cleanliness, decision, and discrimination. The first six were painted on the robe, the second six embroidered on the skirts of the dress; the mountains were the representations of the gods of the country, the dragon was employed as an emblem of change, and the 'variegated insect' or animal, which was a beautiful bird, was an example of variety in colour. The five colours were all used on each kind of silk. For pictures of these objects, the reader may refer to the Shu-king by Dr. Medhurst, p. 71.

^{*} The words in Italics are not translations from the text.

chī-siú, ì wù ts aì chāng shī yū wù sǐ tso fù, jù mîng; yû yǔ wán lǔh. 5. liŭ, wù-shīng, pă-yīn, tsaí chí hwŭ, ì ch'ŭ nă, wù yên, jù t'īng; yû weî, h. 23. i. 10. jù pǐ; jù wû mién ts'ûng, t'üí yiù heú-yên, kīn sz-līn! shū hwân chān i. 26. shườ, jờ pử tsaí shî, heû ì mîng chī; tả ì kí chĩ. Shū yáng shǐ tsaí! yử j. 14. pîng sāng tsaí! kūng ì nă yên, shî ậr yâng chī; kă tsi chīng chī, yûng chī; feù, tsǐ weí chī." Yù yǔ: "Yū-tsaī? Tí-kwāng t'iēn chī hiá, j. 30. chí yū haì yû ts'āng-sāng; wán pāng lī hién, kūng weî Tí chīn; weî k. 14. k. 29. Tí shî kù, fū-nă ì-yên, mîng-shū ì-kūng, kü-fǔ ì-yūng; shuî kān pǔjáng, kàn pǔ-kīng-yíng? Tí pǔ shî, fū t'ûng jǐ tseú kāng-kūng; wû l. 17. jû Tān-chǔ gaû, weî mân yiû shí haú, gaû-niŏ shí-tsŏ, kāng cheú yè m. 2. m. 18. gĕ-gĕ; kāng shwuì hîng cheū, pâng yîn yū kiā, yúng t'ièn kiǔ shí; yû chwáng jû-shî, tsuí yū T'û-shān híng jîn kwaī kiǎ; Kí kū-kū ậr kǐ, yû n. 20. fǔ tsz, weî hwâng tŏ t'ù kūng; pĭ chîng wù fǔ, chí yū wù ts'iēn; cheū shǐ yiù àr sz, waí pŏ sź-haì; hân kiến wù chàng, kŏ tǐ yiù kūng; Miau hwân fữ tsĩ kũng, Tí k'î niên tsaí."

2. Extract from the Shū-kīng (2), v. native text, page 2.

a. 1. Tí yử: "Tí chĩn tế, shì naì kũng weî sú; Kaū-yaū fāng k'î
a. 15. kử sú, fũng shí siáng hîng weî mîng." Kw'eî yử: "kiă-kǐ mînga. 28. k'iû, tw'ân-fù k'în-sẽ ì yúng; tsù k'aù laî kă, yū pīn tsaí weî,
b. 13. kiữn heú tế jâng; hiá kwàn t'aû-kù, hỏ chì chữ-yù, sāng yûng ì kién;
b. 29. niaù-sheú ts'iāng-ts'iāng; siaū shaû kiù chîng, fúng-hwûng laî î."

.... Ch'ū-nă (1. i. 2, 3) 'odes and ballads.' Ch'ū 'odes' from superiors; nă 'songs' from inferiors. Their respective characters were displayed in their compositions. Heū (1. j. 1) 'the target.' This relates to a custom mentioned in the Cheū-lì b 'the ceremonies of the Cheu dynasty.' This and the other modes of trial were probably similar in spirit to the ancient ordeal practised in other countries. The T'ū-shān 'the mountain Tu' was situated in Lat. 32°. 34' N. Long. 0°. 16' E. of Peking. The scene of these events was in the country now known by the name of Shān-tūng', a province in the north of China.

The five tenures here mentioned are the divisions of land made in those early times; their names were Tiend, Heue, Sult, Yaus, Hwangh. The people here called Miau are the Miau-tsz, a distinct tribe, supposed to be the aborigines of China. They still exist as a clan in the west-central provinces, and lead a wild life in the mountains. An account of forty-one tribes of these people is given in the Chinese Repository, vol. XIV. p. 105.

Ming-k'iû (2. a. 27, 28), 'the sounding stone,' means the sonorous gem which was formed of a piece of jade stone, which, being suspended in a frame, emitted a pleasant sound when struck. T'aû-kû (2. b. 19), 'the tambour,' was like a drum, but smaller; it was furnished with a handle, and, on being shook, the balls which were attached struck the instrument. Chǔ-yū' (2. b. 23, 24), 'the rattle,' was a tub, two cubits and four inches in diameter, and two cubits and eight inches deep. A hammer was fitted to it, by which it was struck. 'The stopper' was in form like a crouching tiger, on the back of which were twenty-seven indentations. When the music was to begin they shook the rattle, and when it was to stop they drew a style made of wood along the tiger's back.

b周禮 °山東 d甸 °候 f綏 『要 b荒

clearly set them before me. When I wish to hear the six notes, the five sounds and the eight tones of music, in what consists right government or the contrary, as concerns the odes of the higher classes and the ballads of the lower classes, each of five syllables, you listen for me. When I depart from the right way, you help me to return. You do not in my presence be complaisant, and on retiring have a different expression. Thoughtful should the four attendants be! All those who rudely misrepresent things, if they do not alter in time, test them by archery, in order to enlighten them; punish them with whips, so as to remind them of their duty. The Record, how useful to know it *! We wish, too, to preserve their lives! The chief musician will receive the words appointed, and constantly inspire these men with them. If they repent, recommend them and employ them; if not, overawe them." Yu said: "Is that right? Your majesty's glory should be spread through all the empire, even to the corners of the ocean, and the blue distance that arises, the myriads of nations, and the virtuous of your own people, would then become your subjects. But let your majesty ever raise these men; when they report, receive their words, and declare each according to his merits, by giving chariots and robes to render them constant. Who then would presume not to yield, and reverently to comply? If your majesty do not so, they will all be corrupt alike, and there will be daily reports of unworthy proceedings. Do not, as Tan-chu, be proud, who, while only rambling about, delighted to insult and oppress, doing evil day and night continually. Where no water was, he wished to sail, and he corrupted those at home; and so he caused his succession to be cut off. I was admonished by this, and having married at Tu-shan, only four days I remained there. When my child Ki fretted and wept, I did not caress him, but I considered the important duty of levelling I assisted in completing the five laws of tenure, to the distance of five thousand lī. In every district I appointed twelve officers. Beyond these districts, even to the four seas, I established the five elders, each of whom has some merit; but the Miau people are stubborn and will not go to work. May your majesty bear this in mind!"

Translation of the Extract from the Shū-kīng (2), native text, page 2.

The Emperor said: "As respects walking after my virtuous rules, it is ever to your merit alone that the arrangement of it is due. Kau-yau then took with respect that arrangement of yours, and thereupon added the forms of punishment, being very discerning." Kw-ei said: "When they struck the sonorous stone, and swept across the harp and lyre to make their chord with the chant, then the manes of our ancestors and progenitors came near; the guest of Yu was presiding, and the multitude of nobles bravely gave homage. Below were pipes and tambours, which accompanied or ceased in accordance with the rattle and the stopper; the organ and the bell were used for the interludes. The birds and beasts were set in motion, and when they played the nine airs of Shun music, the Fung birds came and acted the rites."

^{*} A book was kept in which the conduct of officials was noted down.

Kw eî-yă: "Yū yû kĭ-shĭ fù-shĭ, pă-shaú sǔ wù, shū yûn yùn hiaî." c. 11. Tí yûng tsố kō, yữ: "Chẽ t'iên chĩ míng, weî shî, weî kī;" naì kō C. 27. yŭ: "Kù-kwāng hì tsaī! yuên-shed k'i tsaī! pĕ-kūng hī tsaī!" d. 12. Kaū-yaū paí-sheù k'ì-sheù yûng-yên yŭ: "Nién tsaī! sŭ-tsŏ hīng sź, d. 25. shín naì hiện! Kīn-tsaī! lú sãng naì chỉng; kīn-tsaī!" Naì kãng tsaí е. 10. kō yǔ: "Yuên-sheù mîng tsaī! kù-kwâng liâng tsaī! shū sź kāng C. 24. tsaī!" Yiú kō yŭ: "Yuên-sheù ts'ûng-ts'ó tsaī; kù-kwûng tó tsaī! f. 7. wán-sź tó tsaī!" Tí paí yǚ: "Yū! wàng kīn-tsaī!" f. 20.

2. Epitaph of $K\bar{\imath}$ -ts \dot{z} , v. native text, pages 2 and 3.

Kī-tsž pī. Liû Tsūng-yuên.—Fân tá-jîn chī taú yiù sān: yǐ yǚ, g. 2. chíng mûng nân; ár yữ, fà sheú shíng; sān yữ, hwā kǐ mîn. Yīn yiù g. 21. jîn jîn, yŭ : Kī-tsz. Shǐ kứ tsz taú, ì lǐ yū shí. Kú K'ūng-tsz shǔ lǔ-kīng h. 6. chĩ chì, yiû yĩn-kĩn yên. Tăng Cheú chĩ shî, tá taú peí-lwán, t'iēn-weī · h. 25. chī túng pù-nâng kiai, shíng jîn chī yên wû-sò-yúng; tsín-sè ì píngi. 11. míng, chỉng jîn ì. Wữ-yĩ wữ-sź, kú pŭ-weî; weì-shīn ì tsān-sź, chỉng i. 27. jîn ì. Yù-wâng wû-kwŏ, kú pŭ-jìn; tsiè shí àr taú, yiù hîng-chī-chè-yèa. j. 14. Shí yúng paù k'î mîng-chĕ, yữ chī fù-yàng; hwüí shí mû-fán, jǔ yū k. 2. ts iû nû; hwān ậr wû siè, t üî ậr pǔ sǐ: kú tsaí Yǐ yǚ: "Kī-tsz chī k. 18. 1. 5. mîng î,"—chíng mûng nân yè. Kǐ t'iēn-míng kĩ-kaì, sāng-jîn ì chíng, naì ch'ừ tá-fă, yúng wei shing sz. Cheū jîn ti ì sū ī-lận ậr li tá-tièn, kú m. 10. tsaí Shū yǔ: "ì Kī-tsz kweī tsŏ hûng-fàn, fǎ sheú shíng yè;" kǐ fūng m. 26. Chaū-siēn, t'üî taú hiún-sǔ; weî tǐ wû leú, weî jîn wû yuén; yúng kwàng yīn sź, pī î wei hwâ; --hwā kǐ mîn yè. Sĭ shí tá-taú, tsú yū n. 11. kữ kūng; t'iēn-t'í pién-hwā, ngò ti k'î chíng, k'î tá-jîn yû! n. 28.

Ki-tsi was a relative of the tyrant $Che\hat{u}-sin^b$ (B. C. III2), and was obliged to save his life from the Emperor's anger, on being reproved, by feigning madness. The greatest enormities were perpetrated by this monarch and his queen $Tan-ki^c$, who had been taken captive by him after a victory. To please her he invented the most extravagant methods of torture, immoral songs and dances, with the worst abominations of heathen lands. $Pi-k\bar{a}n$ (2. o. 24) was the first martyr for reproving the king. $W\hat{u}-w\hat{a}ng$ (3. a. 11), 'the martial king,' at last rid the world of this monster. He made a solemn appeal to heaven, imposed an oath on his nobles, and proceeded to battle. $Che\hat{u}$ sent 700,000 men against him, but they had no will to fight; and $Che\hat{u}$'s army being routed, he himself retired to the stage, which he had erected for other purposes, and burnt himself in sumptuous robes and jewels. Tan-ki was slain by $W\hat{u}-w\hat{a}ng$, the victorious general.

The style of this passage is very classical and elegant; for the arrangement of the words, and the antithesis to be observed in some sentences, the original text must be studied. See Medhurst's Shoo-king, p. 363, and Morrison's View of China for Philological Purposes, Chronology, p. 53.

Shing^d (2. g. 28), which means the highest qualities of goodness and wisdom, may often be translated 'saint' or 'sacred,' and is frequently translated 'sage.' As it can apply only to those who stand apart from the rest of mankind, either on account of their virtues or their wisdom, and generally for both reasons, the rendering 'sacred sages' seems appropriate in this epitaph.

Kweî went on to say: "While I was striking and jingling the sonorous stones, all the beasts came forth to play, and all the officials were sincerely cordial." The Emperor composed an original ode, to wit: "that men should be careful about heaven's commands, be constant, and be exact." Then he sang, saying: "When statesmen (arms and legs) are glad to serve, the head of the state arises to action, and all public undertakings flourish." Kau-yau bowed with his hands and bent his head, and murmured out, saying: "Bear in mind this! The sovereign begins the affair, let him be careful about his regulations! Be careful, and often search into the end of affairs! Be careful!" Then he joined and completed the ode, saying: "When the head of the state is intelligent, the statesmen will be virtuous, and all affairs will be prosperous." Again he sang, saying: "If the head of the state be very stringent in his demands, the ministers will be careless, and every thing will fall into ruin." The Emperor bowed and said: "Very right! Go! and be careful!"

Translation of the Epitaph of K î-tsz, v. native text, pages 2 and 3.

Ki-tsz's epitaph, by Liu Tsung-yuen.—Great men generally have three principles of action; first, they act correctly in adversity; secondly, they give an example to the sacred sages; thirdly, they reform the people. In Yin there was a pious man named Ki-tsz; he was fully furnished with these principles for an example to the world. For this reason Kung-tsz, in compiling the six classics, took care diligently to notice these points. In the time of Cheu, these great principles were so utterly perverted, that the power and majesty of heaven was not sufficient to restore them to order. The words of the sacred sages were without good effect; to rush into death and to be regardless of life was then true piety. There being no profit in keeping the sacred rites, they kept them not; but to bow and reverently to preserve those rites was true piety. To give himself up to die for his country, he had not the courage; but he had two virtues; -by the preservation of his intelligence he bestowed it upon all ranks, through concealing his counsels and plans he was disgraced to imprisonment and bondage; -- in obscurity he was without depravity, and when ruined he did not sigh in despair. Therefore in the Yi-(king) it is said: Ki-tsz's illustrious quality was contentment,—he acted correctly in adversity. The decree of heaven being changed, that the living might turn to righteousness, he issued his great law, as a model to the sacred sages. The men of Cheu succeeded, by arranging in order the invariable law of the human relations, in establishing Therefore in the Shü-(king) it is said: Ki-tsz restored the great civil code. the great plan, and thus he gave an example to the sacred sages. And being appointed to Chau-sien (Corea), he promoted virtue and taught good manners. He considered virtuous principles without reference to rank, and he regarded men without reference to distance of abode. By using widely and diligently sacrificial rites, he made the barbarians to become civilized Chinese;—thus he proceeded to reform the people. He followed these great laws, and united them in himself. Amid the changes and transmutations of the universe, if one succeed in upholding the right, that will be to act the great man indeed!

o. 12. Yü hū! Tāng k'î Cheū-shî wí chí, Yīn sź wí t^rièn, Pì-kān ì sż,

0. 28. Weî-tsz ì k'ú, hiáng shí Cheá ở wí jìn ậr ts
ź $p\bar{\imath}$; Wú kặng niên lwán

a. 22. ì t'û tsạn, kwở wû k'î jîn shüî yù hîng-lì, shí kú jîn sź chī hwŏ-jên-

b. 10. chè yè, jên tsĩ siēn-sāng yìn-jìn ậr weí tsż. K'î yiù chí yū s̄z hû!

b. 26. T'âng meũ niên, meũ yữ, meũ jĩ tsở miaú kĩ kiún sửi shî chí sź.

3. Extract from the $S\acute{z}$ -sh \ddot{u} (1), $L\acute{q}n$ - $y\acute{u}$, v. native text, page 3.

Sź-shū. Lợn-yû. Tsz yū: "Hiờ ớr shî sĩ chĩ, pũ yĩ yũ hứ! Yiù d. 2. pâng tsz yuèn-fāng laî, pǔ yǐ lŏ hû! Jîn pǔ chī ậr pǔ wán, pǔ yǐ d. 20. kiūn-tsž hû!" Yiù-tsž yŭ: "K'î wei jîn yè hiaú tí âr haú-fán-shánge. 7. chè, sièn ì. Pǔ-haú fán-sháng ậr haú-tsŏ-lwán-chè, wí-chī-yiù yè. e. 23. Kiūn-tsž wú pận, pận li ậr taú sāng. Hiaú-tí-yè-chè,—k'î weî jîn chī f. 9. pàn yù!" Tsz yŭ: "Kiaù yên líng sĩ, sièn ì jîn." Tsâng-tsz yŭ: f. 26. "wû ji san sang, wû-shīn weî-jîn meû ûr pŭ-chūng hû? yù pûng-yiù g. 10. kiaū ậr pŭ-sīn hû? ch'uên pŭ-sĭ hû?" Tsž yǔ: "Taú ts'iēn shíng chī g. 26. h. 11. kwŏ, kìng sź ậr sín, tsĩ yúng ậr ngai jîn, shí-mîn ì shî." Tsz yű: "Tí tsz jǐ, tsǐ hiaú; ch'ŭ, tsī tí; kīn ậr sín, fán ngaí chūng, ậr tsīn jîn: h. 27. hîng yiù yû lĩ, tsĩ ì hiŏ-wận." Tsz-hiá yữ: "Hiên hiên yĩ shĩ; sź i. 14. fú-mù, nâng kĩ k'î lǐ; số kiữn, nâng chí k'î shīn; yữ pâng-yiù kiaũ, i. 30. yên ậr yiù sín; suī yữ: 'wí hiỏ,' wû pǐ weí chī hiỏ ì." j. 16.

The character jin^n (2. h. 6), which is commonly translated 'benevolence, humanity,' &c., might be rendered 'piety' or 'virtue.' It signifies the practice of those virtues which constitute a good citizen, a kind father, a dutiful son, an affectionate husband, a loving brother and a faithful friend;—characters which are involved in the five human relations (wa-lan), according to the Chinese. In the first case here jin (2. i. 29) would stand for 'patriotism,' in the second (2. j. 14) for 'filial piety.'

The following notices of Pi-kan, Wei-tsz, and Tan-ki, which are given in Gonçalves' Arte China, translated by Sir John Bowring, may interest the reader: v. Chinese Repository, 1. Pì-kānb, 'the living one without a heart' (B. C. 1140), was the elder brother of Cheú-sīn, by a concubine. He was a saint, and esteemed so by his brother, but being hated by his sister-in-law Tán-kì, on account of his admonitions, she said to Cheú it would be easy to ascertain whether he was a saint or not, for if so he would have seven holes in his heart. Moved by curiosity, Cheú ordered his heart to be extracted, and seven holes were found in it; but as the saint had secured himself against death, he went to another country. Here meeting a man who was selling onions, he asked him what vegetable it was, and the man answering that it was a vegetable without a heart, he remembered that he himself had none, and died in a swoon. 2. Weî-tsz'c, 'the astronomer' (B. C. 1150), brother of Pì-kān, seeing the tyrannical acts of Cheū, fled in alarm, and carrying with him the astronomical books in which he was well versed, went to the west, to whose inhabitants he communicated his knowledge; hence it is that Europeans obtained treasures of science which China lost. 3. Tán-kì d, 'the lovely sporter' (B. C. 1130), one of the four beautiful wives of tyrant $Che\acute{a}^e$. She was fond of lighting the alarm watch-houses, to see the soldiers in movement, but when the enemy really came, and the watch-house was lighted, the soldiers did not appear; so the tyrant lost his head, and she being burned, was transformed,—some say into a guitar, which she had been before, others say into a fox.

"仁 b比于 °微子 '妲己 °衬

Alas! The time of the *Cheū* (dynasty) not yet being come, the sacrificial rites of *Yin* not yet being done away, *Pi-kan* being dead, *Wei-tsz* having departed; all tended towards the fall of *Cheū* (the tyrant) in death before his wickedness reached its height. While *Wu* was thinking on revolution as a means for the kingdom's preservation, had this man been absent, who would have assisted in restoring order? It was assuredly this man's work doubtless! Yea! this scholar, concealing himself patiently, worked thus; he had intended this very thing!

In the *T* ang (dynasty) in a certain year, in a certain month, on a certain day this temple was raised to lead the city annually to perform the sacrifice.

Translation of the Extract from the Sź-shū (1), Lán-yû, v. native text, page 3.

The Master * said: "To learn, and constantly to dwell on the subject, is it not a pleasure! To have friends, come from a distance, is it not enlivening! The man who is misunderstood, and who is yet free from indignation, is he not a superior man!" Yiù-tsè said: "Those who, as men, show themselves dutiful, both as sons and as younger brothers, and yet like to resist their superiors, are few; men who dislike resisting superiors and yet like creating rebellion are not to be found! The superior man busies himself with fundamentals; the foundation being laid, then, as a consequence, good principles of action are produced. The duties of sons and younger brothers! these surely form the foundation of all reciprocal virtues." The Master said: "Crafty words and a specious exterior are seldom found with virtue!" Tsang-tsz said: "I daily on three points examine; viz. Have I, in acting for others, devised any thing unfaithfully? Have I, in my intercourse with friends, been insincere? Have I delivered instruction which I have not practised?" The Master said: "In ruling a country of a thousand chariots, let there be respect for industry and honesty; let frugality be coupled with benevolence; and, in engaging the people, let the seasons be considered." The Master said: "As for young men, while they remain at home, let them be obedient to their parents; when they go out, let them act in submission to their elders. Let them be diligent and sincere, show love to all, and make friends of the virtuous. If, after business is done, there is any surplus strength, then let them use it in the cultivation of learning." Tsà-hiá said: "By giving the virtuous their due, and so obtaining an equivalent for vicious desires; in serving parents, to be able to use the whole strength; in serving the prince, to be able to devote the life; in communicating with friends, to be sincere in word; although a person who does this may be deemed unlearned, I must call him learned indeed."

^{*} The term 'master,' which is here adopted from Dr. Legge's translation, seems very appropriate as the translation of tsz's, which in this passage, and often, means 'the great teacher,'—Confucius himself. It accords with the use of the word in our translations of the Gospels for $\delta i\delta \delta \sigma \kappa a \lambda o s$, excepting that this term tsz' is used by itself to mean 'the master,' par excellence, and is never so used for any other of the philosophers.

Tsž yū: "Kiūn-tsž pŭ chúng, tsĭ pŭ weî; hiŏ, tsĭ pŭ kú; chù chūng j. 30. sín, wû yiù pŭ jû ì chè; kwó, tsi wǔ tán kaī." Tsậng-tsz yǔ: "Shínk. 15. chūng chữi-yuèn, mîn tẽ kweĩ heú ì." Tsz-k'în wặn yữ Tsz-kúng yữ: l. 1. "Fū-tsz chí yū shí pāng yè, pǐ wận k'î chíng; k'iû chī yū, yǐ yù chī l. 16. yū̃ ?" Tsž-kúng yǔ̃: "Fū-tsž wān, liâng, kūng, kiến, jáng, ì tĕ chī; fū-tsž m. 3. chī k'iû chī yè, k'î chū-í hû jîn chī k'iû chī yū!" Tsž yŭ: "Fú tsaí, m. 19. kwān k'î chi; fú mù, kwān k'î hîng: sān niên wû kaī yū fú chī taú, n. 6. k'ò wei hiaú ì." Yiù-tsà yǔ: "Lì-chī yúng hô weî kweī; siēn wûng n. 23. chī taú, sz weî meì: siaù tá yiû chī, yiù sò pǔ hîng. Chī-hô ậr hô pǔ ì 0. 7. lì tsĩ chĩ, yĩ pữ-k'ò hîng yè." 0. 26.

4. Extract from the Sź-shū (2), Sháng-máng, v. native text, page 4.

Máng-tsz wei Tsî Siuēn-wâng yŭ: "Wâng chī chîn yiù t'ŏ k'î ts'īa. 2. a. 16. tsż yū k'î yiù, âr chī Ts'ú yiû chè; pì k'î fàn yè, tsi túng-nüí k'î ts'ī-tsż, b. 5. tsǐ jû chī hô?" Wâng yǔ: "K'í chī." Yǔ: "Sź-sz̄ pǔ nâng chī sź, tsǐ jû chī hô?" Wâng yŭ: "ì chī." Yŭ: "Sź-kìng chī nüí pǔ chí, tsǐ jû b. 21. chī hô?" Wâng kú tsò-yiú ậr yên t'ā.—Mặng-tsz yữ: "Sò wei kúc. 7. kwở chè, fĩ wei yiù k iaû-mữ chī wei yè, yiù shí-chîn chī wei yè. Wûng c. 26. wû ts'īn-chîn ì; sĩ chè sò tsín, kīn-ji pŭ chī k'î wâng yè" Wâng yǔ: d. 13. "Wû hô ì shi k'î pŭ tsaî âr shè chĩ?" Yǔ: "Kwo kiūn tsín hiên jû d. 30. pŭ-tĕ-ì, tsiāng-shí pī yú tsān, sú yú tsĭ, k'ò pǔ shín yû! Tsò-yiù kiaī е. 16. yǔ: 'hiên,' wí-k'ò yè; chū tá-fū kiaī yǔ: 'hiên,' wí-k'ò yè; kwŏ-jîn f. 4. f. 20. kiaī yū: 'hiên,' jên-heú ch'ā chī kién: hiên yên, jên-heú yúng chĩ."

 $Sz'-sh\bar{u}$ (3. d. 2), 'the Four Books,' may be looked upon (like the Penteteuch with the Jews), as containing the moral and political principles of the Chinese. This passage is taken from the $L\bar{u}n-y\bar{u}$, 'the Dialogues' or discourses of Confucius and his disciples. $Y\bar{u}^a$ (3. d. 17) is here represented by the character $shw\delta^b$. It expresses the internal feeling of pleasure induced by thinking over something in which the mind delights. In opposition to $l\delta^c$ (3. d. 27), which means the external manifestation of pleasure,—cheerfulness, gladness. Chè d might have been looked for after $ch\bar{\iota}$ (e. 1) or $hw\bar{u}n$ (e. 4); but the form of the sentence agrees with that of the two previous clauses, in which $ch\delta$ is omitted. Observe the change of tone in $ha\hat{u}$ (e. 20), which here means 'to like,—to love.' $Si\bar{e}n-\bar{\iota}$ $j\hbar n^c$ (3. g. 4), 'few pious,' is an unusual construction. $J\hbar n$ is in apposition here, as frequently, and this will explain the form of expression. $Si\bar{e}n-\bar{\iota}$ is the predicate of the sentence, and $j\hbar n$ is added, as it were by apposition, and makes a relative clause like an attributive, 'who are pious.' For a critical history of the text the student may refer to Dr. Legge's Chinese Classics, vol. I. Prolegomena, p. 12. Dr. Legge translates $L\bar{u}n-y\bar{u}$ by 'Confucian Analects.'

The subjects of the work are very various; filial piety is held to be the prime duty and the foundation of all virtue. The fragmentary nature of the work precludes any analysis of its contents. The Chinese have made two great divisions of it into Sháng-lán, 'upper or first lán,' and Hiá-lán, 'lower or second lán.' From the terseness of the style and the necessity, in translations of this kind, of giving the meaning as literally as possible, the entire sense cannot well be conveyed, it would indeed need a paraphrase to make the full idea clear to the English reader. The first passage here given, for example, would be represented in a paraphrase in some such phrase as this: 'What agreeable sensations arise in our minds when we think again on that which, by constant reiteration and practice, we have

The Master said: "If the superior man * be not grave, then he will not command respect; let him study and then he will not be vulgar, let him estimate in the highest degree fidelity and truth, let him be without friends excepting those like himself; when in error then let him not be afraid to change." Tsang-tsz said: "If care be taken about the last rites for parents, and they be repeated for the departed souls, the virtuous principle of the people will return to its original goodness." Tsz-kīn asked Tsz-kūng, saying: "When our Master comes to this or that country, he needs must get information about its government; - does he ask for it, or is it given to him?" Tsz-kung replied: "Our Master, by affability and goodheartedness, by courtesy and moderation, coupled with a polite yielding to others, obtains it. Our Master's mode of asking it is all different from other men's modes." The Master said: "While the father is alive, look at the son's intentions; when the father is dead, look at his actions. If in three years he be without change as respects his father's principles, he may be called 'filial.'" Yiu-tsz said: "In acting with propriety t, to use cordiality is of importance. In the principles of the kings of days gone by, this was considered excellent. As respects following them in little things and in great, there are some which cannot be done. If any one know cordiality and do not moderate that cordiality with propriety, it should not be done."

 $Translation\ of\ the\ Extract\ from\ the\ S\'z-sh\~u\ (2), Sh\'ang-m\'ang, v.\ native\ text, page\ 4.$

Mang-tsz, talking with Siuen, the king of Tsi, said: "Should one of your majesty's ministers, who had committed his wife and children in trust to a friend, while he made an excursion into Tsu, on his return find that he had starved them both outwardly and inwardly, then what should be done?" The king replied: "Cast him off." Mang-tsz said: "Should the chief of the officers of justice not be able to govern his subordinates, then what should be done?" The king said: "Deprive him of office." Mang-tsz said: "Should the interior of the four boundaries (i. e. the kingdom) not be governed aright, what should be done then?" The king looked left and right and spoke of another matter.—Mang-tsz, at an interview with king Siuen of Tsi, said: "The reason why a country is said to be ancient, is not because it is said to have tall trees, but because it is said to have patriotic ministers. Your majesty is without the affection of your ministers. Those who formerly entered your service, to-day you know nothing of their loss." The king replied: "How shall I know of those without talent, and reject them?" Mang-tsz answered: "When the ruler of a kingdom advances the prudent, he cannot be too cautious in employing mean men more than the honourable, or strangers more than relatives. When the attendants all say, 'he is prudent,' that is not sufficient; when the chief officers all say, 'he is prudent,' that is not sufficient; when the people of your kingdom all say, 'he is prudent,' then examine into the opinion of his prudence, if correct then employ him."

^{*} Here Kiūn-tsz' means rather he who studies to be a superior man.

[†] The chi after li shows that the word li is used as a verb, i. e. to act according to li,—fitness, propriety, ceremony, etiquette.

Máng-tsz kiến Tsî Siuēn-wâng yữ: "Weî kữ shĩ, tsĩ pĩ shí kũng-sz g. 7. k'iû tá mỹ; kūng-sẽ tẽ tá-mỹ, tsĩ wâng hì, ì-wei nâng shîng k'î jin yè. g. 23. Tsiāng-jîn cho ậr siaù chī, tsǐ wâng nú, ì-wei pǔ shíng k'î jín ì. Fū-jîn h. 10. yiú ậr hiŏ chữ chwáng ậr yữ hîng chĩ. Wâng yữ: 'Kữ shè jù sò hiŏ ậr h. 28. ts'ûng ngò,' tsĩ hô !" Jû kīn yiù p'ŏ-yŭ yū tsz, süī wán-yĭ, pĭ shí yŭ-jîn i. 14. j. 2. tiaū-chŏ chī. Chí-yū chī kwŏ-kiā tsĭ yŭ: 'kū shè jù sò hiŏ ậr ts'ûng ngò,' tsǐ hô ì í yū kiaū yŭ-jîn tiaū-chŏ yŭ tsaī !—Lŏ-chíng-tsž kiến Mặng-tsž j. 20. yŭ: "K'ĕ-kaú yū kiūn, weî laî kién yè; pí-jîn yiù Tsâng-ts āng chè tsū k. 10. k. 26. kiūn; kiūn shí-ì pŭ kwò laî yè." Yǚ: "hîng, hwŏ shí-chī; chì, hwŏ nīchī:—hîng,chì, fī jîn sò nâng yè. Wû chī pǔ yú Lù-heû, t'iēn yè. Tsângl. 12. shí chī tsz, yên nâng shí yû pử yứ tsaī!"—Pĩ yiù sz yên ậr wử chíng l. 29. m. 17. sīn wũ wâng, wũ tsù chàng yè, wû jû Sũng jîn. Jên Sũng jîn yiù mìn k'î miaû-chī pǔ chàng âr yă-chī chè; mâng-mâng-jên kweī wei k'î jîn, n. 3. yữ: "Kīn-jǐ píng ì, yû tsù miaû chàng ì." K'î tsz tsứ ậr wàng shí chī n. 19. miaû tsĩ kaù ì. Tiēn-hiá chī pừ tsù miaû chàng chè kwá-ì, ì-weí wû yǐ 0. 6. ậr shè chĩ chè, pử yun miau chè yè, tsù chĩ chàng chè, yở miau chè yè; 0. 24. fī t'û wû yĭ âr yiú haí chī.

5. Extract from the Sź-shū (3), Hiá-máng, v. native text, page 5.

b. 2. Mặng-tsz yử: "Pí-î shíng chĩ tsìng chè yè. I-yữn shíng chĩ jín b. 17. chè-yè. Liû Hiá-hwüí shíng chĩ hô chè yè. K'ũng-tsz shíng chĩ shî c. 2. chè-yè. K'ũng-tsz chĩ wei tsǐ tá chîng, tsǐ tá chîng yè-chè. Kĩn shĩng c. 18. ậr yử chín chĩ yè kĩn shĩng yè-chè, ch'ì t'iaû-lì yè; Yử chĩn chĩ yè chè, d. 6. chũng t'iaû-lì yè. Ch'ì-t'iaû-lì-chè, chí chĩ sz yè. Chũng-t'iaû-lì-chè,

once thoroughly learnt!—the present thought associates itself with the past, and produces pleasure in the mind; but only the scholar can experience this. Again, what cheerful joy arises when a friend comes from a distance to visit us again!' The former joy is subjective, it is enkindled by our mental associations; the latter is objective, it dwells with pleasure on the external object which comes from afar.

Shin-chūng chūi-yuèn (3. k. 29). This sentence refers to the practice of reverencing the manes of ancestors and attending to the funeral rites of parents. Ti (3. l. 5), commonly translated 'virtue,' is rather the 'natural conscience.' The Chinese teachers say it is the good principle implanted in the heart of man by heaven. Heâ (l. 7), 'thick,' is here put for 'original goodness,' and it is often used for 'generous,' in opposition to pŏ, 'thin,' which is used for 'meanness.' Shi (3. l. 20) is here put for 'the, this, any' (3. m. 7—16). Observe the character of Confucius here given; by doing his duty to others, he obtains from them what he wants. Gentleness, goodness (or sincerity), meekness, moderation, and courtesy were his characteristics. Chi (3. n. 8), the 'intention' or 'inclination' not yet brought into action, but only sufficiently to show a tendency:—after his parents' death, then he will act (hing, n. 13).

 $M\'{a}ng$ -tsz (4. a. 2). This celebrated philosopher was born in the kingdom of $Ts\'{a}$ (now the province of $Sh\bar{a}n$ - $t\bar{u}ng$ °), where he lived about B. C. 350. He was left fatherless at an early age, but his mother took great care of his education and the choice of his youthful companions. He first studied under $Tsz\'{c}$ - $sz\'{c}$ one of Confucius' descendants, and finally obtained a post under the king of Tsi,— $Siu\bar{c}n$ - $w\'{a}ng$. But as the king did not conform to $M\'{a}ng$ - $tsz\'{c}s$ doctrines, he entered the service of the king of $Li\'{a}ng$ °,— $Hw\'{u}\'{t}$ - $w\'{a}ng$.

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Mang-tsz, at an interview with king Siuen of Tsi, said: "To make a great palace, you must employ a master-builder to seek out great trees. find large trees, then your majesty will rejoice, because you will consider them quite fit for the purpose. But if the workman in hewing them down make them small, then your majesty will be angry, because you will consider them unfit for the purpose. Now, if a man in his youth learn manly principles, and wish in manhood to practice them, and your majesty say, 'Just abandon what you have learnt and follow me,'-how is that? Suppose now your majesty had an unpolished gem here? Although it is only twenty taels in weight, you must employ a lapidary to cut and polish it. And when, with reference to the government of a country, you say, 'Just abandon what you have learnt and follow me,'—then how does this differ from instructing a lapidary how to cut and polish precious stones?"-Lö-ching-tsz, at an interview with Mang-tsz, said: "I have represented it to our prince, who was about to call upon you, but his favourite Tsang-tsang prevented him, on this account our prince is not come." Mang-tsz said: "When one is promoted to office, it is some one who causes it; when one is not promoted, it is some one who prevents it. Promotion and non-promotion are not in the power of man. do not meet the prince of Lu, heaven prevents it; how could a son of the Tsang family prevent my meeting him *!"—You must labour at your business and not forget to regulate the heart, and do not assist growing things. Be not like the man of the Sung dynasty! There was a man of Sung who when he grieved at his grain not growing, pulled it up a little to assist its growth, and hurrying home fatigued, he said to his people: "I am unwell today, I have helped the corn to grow." His sons hastened to go and look at the corn, and behold it was withered away! There are few in this world who do not assist the corn to grow. Because there is little profit arising, those who abandon it, and do not weed their corn, but help it to grow by pulling it up a little, do not only no good, but positive harm.

Translation of the Extract from the Sź-shū (3), Hiá-mặng, v. native text, page 5.

Mang-tsz said: "Pi-i was the pure one among the sages; I-yün was the trusty statesman among the sages; Liu Hia-hwüi was the peaceful one among the sages; and K'ung-tsż was the seasonable one among the sages. K'ung-tsż is called completely perfect. This being completely perfect, is like the sound of gold and the jingling of precious stones. The sound of gold is the commencement of harmony, the jingling of precious stones is the termination thereof. To begin harmonious arrangement is the work of wisdom,—the completion of the same is the work of sanctity. Wisdom may be likened

Afterwards he performed various services at the courts of the petty princes of those times. He attained the age of 94. Divine honours are paid to his memory, and twice every year sacrifices are offered at his tomb.

^{*} This *Ping*, prince of *Lu*, had been prejudiced against *Măng-tsz* by his favourite, who said that he was a bad man because he had attended more carefully to the funeral ceremonies of his mother than to those of his father. Though the fact was, he was in affluence when he buried his mother, but at an earlier period when his father died he was in poverty.

d. 22.

shíng chỉ sź yè. Chí pí tsĩ k'iaù yè; shíng pí tsĩ lǐ yè. pă pú chĩ waí yè, k'î chí àr lǐ yè, k'î chũng fĩ àr lǐ yè." e. g. Tsˇi-yìn chī sīn, jîn-kiaī yiù-chī; siū-ú chī sīn, jîn-kiaī yiù-chī; f. 2. kūng-kíng chī sīn, jîn kiaī yiù-chī; shí-fī chī sīn, jîn-kiaī yiù-chī. f. 18. g. 4. Ts ĭ-yīn chī sīn, jîn yè; siū-ú chī sīn, í-yè; kūng-kíng chī sīn, lì yè; shí-fī chī sīn, chí yè. Jîn, í, lì, chí, fī yiû waí lờ ngò yè. Ngò ku g. 22. h. 10. yiù chī yè fǔ sź àr ì. Kú yǚ: 'k'iû, tsǐ tǐ chī; shè, tsǐ shǐ chī.' Hwŏ h. 28. siãng p'eì sẽ ậr wû swàn chè, pừ nậng tsín k'î tsaî chè yè. Shī yǚ: i. 14. "T'iēn sāng chīng mîn,—Yiù wǔ yiù tsǐ,—Mîn-chī î,—Haú shí í-tĕ." K'ūng-tsž yŭ: Wei tsž-shī chè, k'î chī tau hû! ku yiù wu pi yiù tsi i. 30.

j. 17. mîn chī pìng î yè. Kú haú shí í-tĕ. k. 2. Mặng-tsz yữ: "Niù shān chĩ mữ châng meì ì; ī k'î kiaữ yữ tá kwŏ k. 18. yè, fù-kīn fă chī, k'ò-ì wei mei hû? Shi k'î jĭ-yé chī sò sĭ, yù-lú chī sò jún, fī-wû mîng-nǐ chī sāng yên! Niù-yûng yiú ts'ûng ậr mǔ chī, 1. 8. l. 24. shí-ì jû p'î chŏ-chŏ yè. Jîn kiến k'î chŏ-chŏ yè, ì-wei wi-châng yiù m. 12. ts aî yên! Tsz k'i shān chī síng yè tsaī? Süī tsān hû jîn chè, k'i wû m. 28. jîn-î chī sīn tsaī? K'î sò-ì fáng k'î liâng-sīn chè, yǐ yiû fù-kīn chī yū mu yè: tán-tán ậr fà chĩ, kô-ì wei meì hû? K'î jĩ-yé chī sò sĩ, pîng tán chī k'í, k'î haú-wú yữ jîn siāng-kín yè-chè, kī hī tsǐ k'î tán-0. 5. 0. 23. cheú chī sò weî yiù kŭ-wâng chī."

Shi-chîn (4. d. 7). The commentator Chū-hi explains this expression by liùi-shi hiūnkiú chī chīna 'statesmen who are loyal and patriotic when affairs are in a confused state.' Ts'in-chin (4. d. 14) 'ministers who are attached to,—have an affection for, their prince.' Măng-tsz was arguing, that if a country was to be considered ancient (that is, worthy of respect on account of its venerable and well-tried institutions) by reason of the loyalty and patriotism of its statesmen, then, where affection for the prince was wanting, such ministers could not exist long, but would depart, and consequently the kingdom would lose this mark of honour. The commentator adds: "Being without attached ministers (i. e. ts'in-chîn), much more would the state be without those patriotic men who are equal to troublous times" (i. e. shi-chin). The king's idea is, that such ministers go away because they have not ability equal to the work. His majesty assumes, that he cannot tell their capacities before he engages them, and so he may make a mistake; he therefore asks how he may guard against error in this point, and so reject them. The excellent reply of Măng-tsz needs perhaps a little explanation. He cautions the king against promoting relations and honourable men who are without prudence, and neglecting the mean man and the foreigner who may have this quality. He then proceeds to supply the case in which the man of reputed prudence may be tested in order to employment. He warns the prince against the peculiar bias of particular classes, and points to the vox populi as worthy of his regard, on account of its comparative freedom from party feeling and prejudice.

(4. g. 7-i. 17). In this passage Măng-tsz insinuates that the learning of the sages is great, and that the king seeks to reduce their principles to his own practice. Fân-shî, an eminent scholar and commentator, says on this passage: "The ancient sages ever grieved that princes could not follow their doctrines, and the princes lamented that the sages could not conform to their desires, wherefore the agreement of prince and minister was ever a matter of difficulty. K'ung-tsz and Mang-tsz seldom agreed with the princes of their times." In (4. l. 5) Măng-tsz recognises a Supreme Ruler, whom he calls Heaven, as the governor of human affairs. Mang-mang (4, n. 12) is explained to mean 'the appearance of stupidity; Mang-mang signifies 'much fatigued,' according to Dr. Williams' Dictionary.

unto ingenuity in its practice, and sanctity may be compared to strength. Thus, the archer, who shoots at upwards of a hundred paces, reaches the target merely by his strength,—should he strike the centre it will not be merely by his strength."

All men possess compassionate hearts; all men have hearts open to shame; all men have hearts inclined to reverence; all men have hearts to distinguish between truth and falsehood. A compassionate heart leads to benevolence; a heart ashamed of vice acts with justice; a reverent heart produces propriety of manners; a heart which knows truth from falsehood gives wisdom. Now, we are not imbued with benevolence, justice, propriety, and wisdom by things external; we assuredly possess them innately; they are not to be aimed at only. Therefore it is said: "Seek them and you obtain them, forsake them and you lose them." Some lose manifold, times without number, and are unable to perfect the capacity they possess. The Shī-(king) says: "Heaven produced all people,—they have things to do and ways to do them,—the people are ever constant in loving this beautiful virtue." K'ūng-ts\(\tilde{u}\) has said that he who made this ode knew right principles! For if there is business to do, there must be a method of doing it, and that which the people constantly maintain is esteem for this beautiful virtue*.

Máng-ts² said: "The forest of the Niu mountain† was once beautiful; but since its borders verge on a great state, the axe has felled it:—can it be called beautiful still? Yet with the silent growth by day and night, and the genial influence of rain and dew, surely the tender sprouts will shoot again! Nay! but the oxen and the sheep have been there, and have eaten them up; so that now it is a wilderness! When people see its naked barrenness, they will think it never supported a forest. But was this the natural state of the mountain? Supposing the preservation of it in man, is there not a heart of kindness and justice there? But the means by which man loses his uprightness is like the operation of the axe on the forest. If you fell wood every morning, can it appear beautiful? By the daily and nightly growth of virtue, the spirit which each dawn revives, makes all men similar in their love and hate; but the deeds which each day brings to pass, wither and destroy it."

Pi-î (5. b. 5); I-yün (5. b. 12); Liû Hiâ-hwüi (5. b. 19). The virtues of these three worthies of antiquity are mentioned in order that the chief, K'ūng-tsz, might be mentioned as combining the whole united in his character. Shing (5. b. 7) is explained by the commentator as being ti chī sò tsiú yè 'that which proceeds from the virtuous principle,' it corresponds therefore with sanctity among us.

^{(5.} g. 16.17) k'ûng-king. The commentator has explained this, which is a colloquial expression, and means 'to reverence,' by saying that k'ung is the external expression of king, and king is the principle in the heart from which k'ung arises. Here we have an example of the scientific form of some Chinese words; the objective and the subjective being united to form a general term.

^{*} This 'beautiful virtue' (shî î-ti, 5. j. 25) is called in the Tā-hiō, mîng-tē, 'bright virtue,' and explained in the commentary to be the virtuous principle implanted in the heart by heaven, by which man may direct both his spirit and his conduct.

⁺ The Niu mountain was on the south-east frontier of the kingdom of Tsi, the domain of the king to whom $M\ddot{u}ng$ -tsz was speaking.

6. Extract from the Shing-yii (1), v. native text, page 6.

a. 1. Shíng-yú. (1.) Tán hiaú-tí ì chúng jîn-lận.

a. 11. Ngô Shíng-tsù Jîn Hwâng-tí lîn-yû lǔ-shǐ-yǐ niên, fǎ-tsù tsān-tsīn a. 27. hiaú sź pǔ kweí, kīn tíng Hiaú-kīng yèn-í yǐ-shū; yèn-shǐ kīng-b. 12. wận, î-lì ts'idng-kwán; wû-fī hiaú chí t'iēn-hiá chī í. Kú Shíng-yú b. 28. shǐ hi t'iaù sheù ì hiaú-tí kaī k'ì tvān

shǐ lữ t'iaû sheù ì hiaú-tí k'aī k'î twān. b. 28. c. 8. Chín peī chīng hûng niĕ chiiī weî wàng hiún ch'uī kwûng lǐ kiaú C. 21. chī sź siēn shīn hiau-tí chī í, yung shí yù àr pīng-mîn-jîn tàng, siuēn d. 8. shí chĩ. Fũ hiaú chè; t'iện chĩ kĩng, tí chĩ í, mîn chĩ hîng yè. Jîn pử chĩ hiaú fú-meù, tử pử sź fú-meù gaí-tsz chĩ sĩn hû! Fāng k'î wí d. 24. lî hwaî-paù; kī pǔ nậng tsź-pū; hân pǔ nâng tsź-î. Weî fú-meù chè е. 12. shìn yīn-shīng, chă hîng-sĩ siaù, tsĩ weî chī hì; tí, tsĩ weî chī yiû; e. 29. hîng-túng, tsi kweì-pú pừ lî; tsĕ-t'úng, tsi ts'ìn-shi k'ū-fi ì yàng ì kiaú f. 15. chī yū ch'îng jîn fǔ wei sheú kiā-shǐ meū sāng-lì pā ki kīng yîng sīn g. 3. g. 20. lǐ k'ū tsūī. Fú-meù chī tĕ shǐ t'ûng haú-t'iēn-kāng-kǐ; jîn-tsz yŭ h. 6. paù-tsīn gān yū wán yǐ, tāng nüí tsín k'î sīn waí kiĕ k'î lǐ kìn shīn h. 24. tsĩ-yúng ì kìn fữ laû ì lûng hiaú yàng; wû pŏ pién yìn tsiù; wû haú yùng teú hàn; wû haú hó-tsaî sź ts'ī-tsz tsúng shí î wận wí pí ậr i. 11. i. 28. chîng ki ở yiù yû ch'uĩ ậr kwâng chĩ. Jû Tsậng-tsz sò wei kū-chứ j. 13. pŭ-chwāng fī hiaú sź; kiūn pŭ chūng fī hiaú; lí kwān pŭ kīng fī i. 28. hiaú; pâng-yiù pử sĩn fĩ hiaú; chēn chín wứ yúng fĩ hiaú: kiaĩ k. 12.

k. 12. hiaú ts² fān nüí chī sź yè.
k. 20. Ché tí sān twán shí tân shwò hiaú tǐ taú-lì, nì-mận t'īng-chỏ!
l. 5. Hiaú-shạn tiē-niâng, ché yǐ kién sź shí t'iēn-tí kiēn châng-tsān tǐ taú-l. 21. lì, pă-sîng-mận tsüí-tá tĩ tǐ-hîng.

The Shing-yu, 'Sacred Edict,' was issued by the emperor K'ang-hi, the first great emperor after the Tartar invasion and conquest of China in A. D. 1644. It consisted of sixteen maxims, bearing upon social and political duties. They include admonitions to filial and fraternal duties (1); to regard for kindred and neighbours (2, 3); to husbandry and economy (4, 5); to honour learning and preserve orthodoxy (6, 7); to understand the laws and cultivate politeness (8, 9); to form a habit of determination in your calling (10); to instruct youth (11); to refrain from false accusations and from hiding deserters (12, 13); to pay up taxes (14); to form corporate bodies in order to suppress theft (15); and to settle animosities in order to avoid bloodshed (16). These maxims, each of seven characters, were written on slips of wood, and are still exposed in the public offices. They were amplified by Yung-ching, K'ang-hi's son and successor. This he ordered to be read in public on the 1st and 15th of each month, a custom which is still continued. The style is classical, and difficult for the lower classes to understand. But Wang Yu-po, an officer of government, paraphrased the whole in colloquial style of composition.

Laws in China were first explained to the people in the Cheu a dynasty (cir. B.C. 1000), on the 1st day of the month. At the present readings, the civil and military officers in uniform meet in a public hall. The Li-sang exclaims: "Stand forth in file!" which they do according to rank: then he says; "Kneel thrice and bow nine times!" They all kneel and bow towards a platform, where a board stands with the emperor's name on it. Then he exclaims: "Rise and retire!" They then proceed to a hall where the law

Translation of the Extract from the Shing-yü (1), v. native text, page 6.

The Sacred Edict. (1.) Give practical weight to filial piety and fraternal love in order to strengthen the relative duties.

Our canonized ancestor, the emperor Jin, reigned sixty-one years, and followed the ways of his fathers in honouring his parents and in aiming unremittingly to observe the duty of filial piety. His majesty himself revised and amplified the meaning of the Hiaū-king ('Book of filial piety'). He amplified and explained the text of the work, arranging consecutively the arguments which it contained; considering filial piety alone, and nothing else, to be the means of governing the empire. For this reason the sixteen articles of the Sacred Edict start with filial and fraternal duties as their leading principles.

We, having succeeded to this vast inheritance, have investigated thoroughly his former instructions; and, having studied the object he had in view in establishing the doctrine every where, we have, in the first place, reiterated the meaning of filial piety and fraternal affection, in order that you soldiers and people all may know it. Now filial piety exists in the law of heaven, in the sentiment of the earth, and in the conduct of the people. If a man does not know how to obey his parents, he does not bear in mind their heart of affection! For before he was separated from their parental arms: when hungry, he could not feed himself; when cold, he could not clothe himself. To act as parents do, is to judge by the sound of the voice, to notice the appearance of the face; if the child laugh, then to be pleased; if he cry, then to be grieved; when he moves about to support his footsteps and not leave him; when he is in pain, through sickness, then to be regardless of sleep and food, in order to rear him and to teach him until he arrive at man's estate *.

And then they give him a home, they plan about his livelihood by a hundred schemes, they deliberate for him until their whole heart and strength are both expended. The good principles of parents are like the vastness of high heaven! The son who would fain requite his parents' kindness only in a tenthousandth degree, must, whether at home or abroad, exercise to the utmost his whole heart and strength;—be careful about himself, be frugal, serve them with diligence, and dutifully provide for them. Let him not gamble nor drink,-neither be fond of feats of daring and trials of strength,-nor hanker after riches to expend secretly on his wife and children. Although to perform outward ceremonies he may not be prepared with means to accomplish all that he might intend, sincerity of purpose should abound, and increase it. As Tsang-tsz has said: Unseemly conduct is not filial; in serving the prince to be traitorous is not filial; in the office of magistrate to act in an undignified manner is not filial; with friends to be insincere is not filial; in battle to be cowardly is not filial. All these belong to the duty of an obedient son .-(Paraphrase.)—These three sections treat on the doctrine of filial piety alone. Do you listen! This one article of obedience to parents is the principle which is constantly preserved in the universe, and is the greatest act of virtuous practice amongst mankind.

^{*} Cf. Xenophon's Memorabilia of Socrates, Bk. II. 2, 5, 6.

Nì-mận ts'úng-pǔ-chĩ hiaú-shận tie-niâng, tsá-mó, pǔ-pà nā tie l. 30. m. 15. niâng gaí-ậr-tsz tǐ sĩn-châng, siàng sháng yǐ siàng? Tāng nì-mận m. 29. tsò haî-tsż tĭ shî-heú, tiē-niâng hwaí-paù-chŏ; làng-liaù, pŭ hwüí tsźkì ch'uēn-î; kī-liaù, pŭ-hwüí tsź-kì k'i-fán; k'án-chŏ nì-mận yên-sĩ, n. 15. nì siaú-liaù, t'ā pién hì: nì tì-liaù, t'ā pién ts'iû; nì hîng-túng-liaù, n. 24. t'ā tsiú kān-tíng-liaù nì pú pǔ lî. Nì jŏ yiù-liaù tsĕ-píng, t'ā pién 0. 10. shữi pừ nâng ān. 0. 27.

7. Extract from the Shing-yü (2), v. native text, page 7.

(5.) Sháng tsĩ-kiến ì sĩ tsaî-yúng.

a. 2. Săng-jîn pă-nâng yi ji ậr wû yúng, tsi pă-k'ò yi ji ậr wû tsaî. a. 10. Jên pǐ liû yiù yû chī tsaî ậr heú k'ò kũng pǔ shî chī yúng. Kú tsǐa. 27. kiến sháng yên! Fū tsaî yiû shwii yè; tsǐ-kiến yiû shwii chī ch' ŭ b. 14. yè. Shwüì chī liû pǔ ch'ǔ, tsǐ yǐ-sǐ wû yû ậr shwüì lǐ hŏ ì. b. 28. chī liû pǔ tsǐ, tsǐ yúng-chī wû tú ậr tsaî lǐ kweí ì. Ngò Shíng-tsù, c. 15. Jîn Hwáng-tí, kūng hîng tsǐ-kién, weí t'iēn-hiá siēn, hiú yàng-sāng sǐ d. 2. d. 17. Yīn fú yiû kīng kīng ì sĩ tsaî, yúng shí hiún kaí. mîn fũng kiaī kweī hû kîn kién. Jên kîn ậr pử kién, tsi shi fũ chī e. 3. lǐ pǔ-tsǔ kūng yǐ fū chī yúng. Tsǐ süí sò ts'ang pǔ-tsǔ kūng yǐ jǐ e. 19. f. 6. chī sü. K'î hai naì kāng shīn yè.—Ché t'eû yǐ twán shí shwŏ. Shíng-tsù, Jîn Hwâng-tí, yīn-yīn chüî-hiún tĩ yuên-yiû. Tá fân jîn f. 21. sāng shí-sháng pừ nậng yǐ-jǐ mǔ-yiù fí, tsiú pǔ k'ò yǐ-jǐ mǔ-yiù yêng. 6. ts iên. Jên pĩ tíng tsĩ-ch ǔ-hiá siễ yên-ts iên, taú nà hwǔ-jên shí t ã g. 24. tǐ shî-heû, ts'aî tǐ tsî-kǐ; sò-ì shwŏ tsǐ-kién yǐ-chŏ. Shí-kó tsǚ-miaúh. 10. tǐ fă-tsż! Tsiè ché yên-ts'iên, tsiú jû shwüì yĭ-pān; jîn tsĭ-kién t'ā, h. 28. tsiú siāng tsű-shwüì-tí yǐ-pān. Liû tǐ shwüì pǔ tsú-chǔ siē yiù tōi. 14. shaù liû tō-shaù, tsiú yaú kān-hŏ-liaù. Yúng tsaî jû liû shwüì jŏ pŭ i. 30. j. 16. tsaì-sí-chŏ-siē, jín ts'ûng tō-shaù yên-ts'iên chuên yên yè-tsiú k'íngk. 1. liaù.—Fū pīng-tīng ts iên-liâng yiù yĭ tíng chī sú, naì pŭ-chī tsạn

is usually read. Here the people are assembled to listen. The Li-sāny then calls out: "Respectfully begin!" The Sz-kiàng-sāng, or orator, kneels before an altar of incense, takes a board with a maxim, and ascends a pulpit or platform. An old man then presents the board to the people, calls for silence with a rattle, and, kneeling, reads the maxim. The $L\bar{\imath}$ -sāng next demands the explanation from the Sz-kiàng-sāng, who stands up and gives the meaning. See Dr. Milne's Preface to his Translation of the Sacred Edict.

The original preface by Yung-ching is in elegant classical style, and worthy of careful perusal. We will give a version of a portion, which may be of assistance to the young student. "The Shu-(king) says: 'Every year, in the 1st month of spring, a herald with a bell went round on the roads.' The Li-(ki) says: 'The Sz-tu prepared the six ceremonies to chasten the dispositions of the people; and illustrated the seven doctrines in order to exalt their virtue!' All these, by giving proper weight to first principles, and reverence for realities, became the means of enlightening the people and awakening the age. A plan the very best! An idea the most noble! Our canonized father, the emperor Jin, for a long time taught the doctrine of complete renovation. His virtue was wide as the ocean, and his favour extended every where. nourished every thing, and his justice regulated all people. For sixty years, morning

If you do not at all understand obedience to your parents, how can you, unless you consider your parents' heart of affection towards their child, give it a thought? At that time when you were a little fellow, and in your parents' embrace,—being cold, you knew not how to clothe yourself; being hungry, you could not feed yourself*. They beheld the colour of your countenance. When you smiled, they were pleased; when you wept, they were sorrowful. When you moved about, they, at your heels, supported your steps and remained with you. If you were siekly, they could not sleep in peace.

Translation of the Extract from the Shing-yú (2), v. native text, page 7.

(5.) Attend carefully to frugality so as to spare the waste of your means.

Mortals cannot exist for a day without expending something, and consequently they may not exist for a day without the means of doing so. Well then, they must lay up their superfluous money, so that bye and bye they may apply it to future necessities. For this reason let frugality be exercised! Now money is like water, and frugality is like the accumulation of water. If the flowing away of water be not stopped, then the water will leak out and be completely exhausted. And if the flowing forth of money be not limited, then the expenditure of it will be lavish and your means will fail. Our canonized ancestor, the emperor Jin, himself practised a frugal economy, for a leading example to the empire; while he aimed at making provision for the people and giving prosperity to the state t. In times of abundance he was so careful to spare the wealth of the country, that he used to issue proclamations to instruct the people to lay up store. From olden time all the feelings of the people were in favour of industry and frugality. But if we suppose industry without frugality, then ten men's labour would not suffice to supply one man's wants. The store which comes of a year's hoarding is insufficient for one day's need. The harm which arises is greater still than the loss.—(Paraphrase.)—This first section tells the reason why our canonized ancestor, the emperor Jin, gave us such eareful instructions. All men in general born into the world are unable to live for a day without expense. Therefore they cannot exist for a day without money, so they must determine to store up and accumulate a little money, to meet sudden emergencies. Then they will be able to relieve the embarrassed; on this account he speaks of frugality. It is an uncommonly good plan of his! Now as for money, it is just like water; and if people take care of their money, it is just as if one collected a quantity of water together. Now, if flowing water be not confined and stopped, a good deal will escape, and then all will be dried up. Using money is like letting water flow, if you do not employ a little care as to the quantity, then your money will by little and little be exhausted .- Now the amount of the soldier's pay is fixed, but he does not know how to be frugal.

^{*} It will be observed that several characters, which are wanting in the native text, have been supplied in the Roman character.

[†] This passage is rather obscure, but the translation given above appears to convey the meaning intended. The expressions 'within the seas' and 'below the skies' are translated by 'the state' and 'the empire.'

k. 17. tsǐ; í haú sièn-lí, shǐ k'iû kān-meì. Yǐ yữ fí, sú yử chī liâng shín, l. 4. chí chīng t'aì, ì sửí k'î yử. Tsż-mù siāng kiuên; jǐ fǔ yǐ jǐ, chaí l. 20. shīn lửì-chûng, kī hân pử mièn.—Ché tí-ár-twán shí shườ pīng pử-chī m. 7. tsǐ-kiên-tǐ; nì-mận pīng-tīng tǐ ts'iên-liâng, yuên yiù yǐ-tíng chī sú-m. 23. mử, jờ-shí pử chì-taú tsạn-tsǐ; ī-fữ yaú hưâ-lí, fân-shǐ yaú meì-k'eù, n. 11. kướ yǐ-kô yử jǐ-tsż, taú hưâ fí kī-kô yử ts'iên-liâng, chế ts'iên-liâng n. 28. tsāng-tǐ keú fí. Shīn-tsiè yiú pử gān-sāng-tǐ. Hưân yaú kiế siẽ 0. 13. chaí jîn í hưữī-shà, chế kú yǐ-shî kư aī-hườ.

8. Extract from the Haú-k'iû chuến (1), v. native text, page 8.

Haú-kiû chuến. Swàn-kí tíng-liaù, taú tsź-jǐ, jǐ wí-ch'ŭ, tsiú k'ì a. 2. laî, kīaū Siaù-tān sheū-shǐ hîng-lì, tà-tièn k'ì-shīn; tsź-kiŏ chuên-yāng a. 18. tién-sháng yĭ-kó-siaù-sz, nâ-liaù tĭ-tsz laî, hwüî-paì Kwó kūng-tsz. b. 4. b. 20. Pŭ-k'î Kwó kūng-tsz ì-fŭ hiá-jîn tsai hiá-chú tà-t'ing; yĭ-kién Tĭ kūng-tsž laî-paì, tsaù fī paú-yù Kwò kūng-tsž kāng-tàng-tǐ Tǐ kūng-C. 7. c. 23. tsž taú mận. Kwó kũng-tsž tsaù î-kwān tsî-ts'ù siaù-hă-hă tǐ yîngtsiāng-ch'ŭ-laî taú: "Siaù-tí tsŏ-jĭ tsín-yĕ, pŭ-kwó liaû-piaù-yàngd. 9. mú chĩ chíng; Ti kàn laû taî-hiūng tsź-kú;" yīn liên-liên tà-kūngd. 24. kùng ts'ìng tsín-k'ú. Ti kūng-tsz yuên tà-cháng, chẽ taú mận t'eû yǐe. 9. mîng-tĭ, pién tseù. Hwŭ-kién Kwó kūng-tsz chǐ ch'ŭ-mận yîng-tsĭ, e. 24. f. 8. shǐ-fān yīn-kîn, yǐ-tw'an-hô-k'í, pién-fáng pǔ-hiá làng-lién laî, chĕ-tĕ t'eû liaù mîng-ti, liàng-siāng-yǐ-jáng taú t'īng. Tǐ kūng-tsż tsiú yaú f. 25. Kwó kūng-tsž chì-chứ taú: "Tsž-kien pŭ-pién ts'ìng kiaú." g. 10. Süí tsiāng Tǐ chǐ-yaū taú heú-t'īng; fāng-ts'aî shī-lì sú-tsó. Yǐ-mién g. 24. h. 10. hiến-sháng-ch d-laî, Kwó kũng-tsž yīn shườ-taú: "Kiù wận taî-hiūng, h. 24. yīng-hiûng chī mîng, kǐ-sź yĭ-hwüí; ts iên mûng-jǔ lîn pí-yǐ shî, tsǐ i. 10. meû tsín-yě ậr yiú ts ũng-ts ũng fă-kiá, paù-hận chí-kīn; kīn-hīng tsaí-lín, yiú chĩng chuî-kú, chỉng yiú kw aí-sz! Kàn pàn-tsở pîngi. 25. yuên shǐ-jǐ chī yìn, ì weí kî-kĕ chī hwaî?" Tǐ-kūng-tsz ch'â pá, tsiú j. 9. lí-k'ì-shīn-laî, taú: "Chīng chàng-hiūng heú-gaí, pàn tàng lìng-kiaú; j. 26.

and evening, even while eating and dressing, his only concern was to excite all, both within and without the empire, to exalt humanity; to speak with deference to each other; to put away meanness and keep faith with one another perfectly; that by cultivating the spirit of kindness and humility, they might for ever enjoy a reign of universal peace. Therefore with this intention he gave these superior instructions, consisting of sixteen articles, to acquaint the Bannermen (i. e. the Tartars), together with all descriptions of men and soldiers throughout the provinces, of the bounds of their common and uncommon duties, of the culture of the ground and of the mulberry tree, of working and resting, principles and results, of fine and coarse, public and private, great and small, and whatsoever else the circumstances of the people called on them to practice,—these are the things which his sublime intelligence aimed at. He affectionately treated you, his subjects just as his own children; he issued his sacred instructions, clearly aiming at your certain protection, every age should observe them, they cannot be changed."

Shing (6. a. 12) here means 'canonized' or 'sacred.' It is the custom in China to place the names of great men in the temple of ancestors, they thus become canonized and receive the prefix shing. The temple of Confucius is called the Shing-miaû. (Cf. note on page 26, Part II.)

clothes, he likes to have them fine; as to his food, he seeks for what is nice and good. One month's expenditure amounts to several months' pay, until he borrows to follow out his wishes. The child and the mother become of equal size. Every day adds to the burden of debt, and hunger and starvation become inevitable.—(Paraphrase.)—This second section speaks about the soldier's ignorance of frugal economy. The pay of you soldiers is a regularly fixed amount. If you don't know how to be economical, but as far as your clothes are concerned you wish for finery, and as respects your food you have a dainty mouth; when a month is passed, you find that you have spent several months' wages; how can your pay be sufficient? Moreover you cannot live happily, but you must run into debt, in order to carry out your habits of dissipation, and you regard only the pleasures of the moment.

Translation of the Extract from the Haú-k'iû chuến (1), v. native text, page 8.

The Story of the Fortunate Union.

His plans being determined on; the next day, before the sun was up, he arose and called Siau-tan to collect the luggage, and to prepare himself for departure: while he himself, on the other hand, having solicited the services of a boy from the inn, took his card to return the visit of Mr. Kwo. Without intimation Mr. Kwo had set a menial to play the spy in the lower Directly this man saw Mr. Ti going to visit, he hastened to give information to Mr. Kwo, who was just waiting for Mr. Ti to arrive at the gate. Mr. Kwo, ready dressed, came out to receive him, smiling, and with a respectful but cordial 'Ha! ha!' he said: "I, your humble servant, in waiting upon you vesterday, intended merely to show a slight mark of the sincerity of my respect. You Mr. Ti, I fear, have troubled yourself, Sir, to take notice of it." Then repeatedly he bowed respectfully and invited him to enter Mr. Ti at first intended only to go to the door and present a card, and then to walk away. But on seeing all at once Mr. Kwo straightway coming out to receive him, very urgent and full of cordiality, (then) he did not lay aside his reserve, but merely presented his card, and the two gentlemen kept bowing to each other until they reached the reception room. Mr. Ti was then about to perform the salutations, but Mr. Kwo stopped him, saying: "This place is inconvenient to invite your commands;" and forthwith he invited T' into the inner hall, where they saluted each other, and sat down in due form. Tea having been served up, Mr. Kwo then said: "I have long heard of you, Sir, you have a hero's name, ardently have I looked forward to an interview. When, on a former occasion, you condescended to come to our poor place, I then planned to wait upon you, and in a hurried manner to pay my compliments; but you were absent, and I have felt the annoyance up to the present time. Now that happily you are again come, and have once more condescended to regard us, it is assuredly a significant circumstance; may I presume to engage you in a ten days' entertainment to make even my original plan, and to gratify our feelings of hunger and thirst?" Mr. Ti, however, having finished his tea, then arose and said: "In return, Sir,

k. 10. chě-shí 'kweī-sīn-sè-tsién,' kīn-jǐ lǐ-kě tsiú-yaú hîng-liaù, pà pí chī k. 27. hwān, liû-taí í-jǐ, k'ò-yè!" Wàng-waí tsiú tseù. Kwó lân-chú taú: l. 12. "Siāng-fûng pŭ-yìn, chīn líng 'fūng-yǐ siaú-jîn.' Jín shí hîng-ki, yè l. 27. yaú kǔ-liû sān-jǐ." Tǐ taú: "Siaù-tí shǐ-shǐ yaú-hîng, pǔ-shí kú-ts'ɛ, m. 14. kǐ chàng-hiūng siāng-liáng." Shwò-pá, yiú wàng waí tseù. Kwó yǐ m. 27. sheù chǐ-chú, taú: "Siaù-tí süī pǔ-ts'aî, yè t'ièn weí hwán-kiā tsè-tí; n. 13. t'aī-hiūng pǔ-yaú k'án-tě shǐ-fān k'īng-liaù jŏ kò k'án-k'īng, tsiú pǔ-n. 29. kaī laî tsɛ-kú-liaù; kí-mûng tsɛ-kú, pién yaú swàn tsó pīn-chù; siaù-0. 15. tí k'ù-k'ù siāng-liû, pǔ-kwó yǔ shaù tsín pīn-chù chī î ùṛ, fī

9. Extract from the Haú-k'iû chuến (2), v. native text, page 9.

yiù sò k'iû yè; pŭ-shǐ taī-hiūng hô kiến k'ù-chī shín yè." Tǐ k'ūngа. т. tsž taú: "Mûng chàng-hiūng yīn-yīn yû-ngaí, siaù-tí yǐ pǔ jìn yên a. 17. k'ú; tán chwāng-ì-sŭ; hîng-sĭ kūng-ts'ūng, shí pŭ yûng hwán àr." b. 2. b. 16. Kwó taú: "Kí-shí, t'aī-hiūng, pǔ ì pâng-yiù wei ts'îng, kw'aí-i yaúс. і. hîng; siaù-tí k'iâng-liû, yè tsź-kiŏ hwâng-kwei; tán chĕ-shí ts'īngshîn ngŏ-fŭ ậr laî, yiú líng ngŏ-fŭ ậr k'ú, tí-sīn shǐ yiù pŭ-gān: C. 15. kīn yǐ pữ kàn kiù liû, chế k'iû liŏ-t'îng-nî shî, shaù túng yĭ-ts'àn, ậr d. 2. d. 19. tsǐ t'íng k'ū-chē tsiú taú, shú-kì jîn-ts'îng liàng tsín. Nân-taú t'aīhiững hwân pử-k'àng fù-ts'âng!" Tỉ pàn pử-yử liû, yĩn kiến Kwó e. 4. shīn-ts'îng heú-maú, k'àn-k'àn kw'àn-liû, chì-tĕ-chú-hiá taú: "Taúe. 18. ts aî tsîn-pai tsàng-pién haù siāng-jaù!" Kwó taú: "Chī-ì siāng-fûng, f. 2. tāng wáng pǔ-ngò; t'aī-hiūng kw'aí-sź, hô-kú tsŏ tsż t'aú-yên?" Chíng f. 16. shwö pŭ-liaù, chĕ-kién Shwiì-yún hwŭ tseù-liaù tsín-laî. K'án-kién g. 1. Tĭ, mâng-shī-kwô-lì, mwàn-lién t'üī siaú, taú: "Tsŏ-jǐ shé-chǐ-nù g. 15. kàn Ti siễn-sãng yuên laî kaũ-î, tế tờ ngò-hiờ-sãng kứ-kiền, fúng-kử g. 30. shaù-piaù wî shīn, pǔ shǐ Tǐ siēn-sāng hô-kú kién waí k'ù-k'ù ts'ê-liaù. h. 17. Kīn híng yiù yuên, yiú tě siāng-peī." Ti taú: "Ngò-hiò-sāng laî i. 4.

The *Hiaû-king* (6. b. 3) 'the Classic of Filial Piety,' is a collection, in sixteen chapters, of sentences by Confucius and his disciple *Tsang-tsz*', upon duty to parents and superiors. The author's name is unknown. A translation by Dr. Bridgman appeared in the *Chinese Repository*, vol. V.

 $Wa-f\bar{\imath}.....$ (6. b. 17—25). Here are two negatives to intensify an assertion. The whole may be construed: 'By nothing else but filial piety he considered that the empire could be governed.' (See Art. 450 of Part I.) Chī t'iēn-hiá chī $\hat{\imath}$ = 'the idea (or thought, or purpose) for governing the empire,' i. e. 'he considered that the empire could be governed,' $w\hat{\imath}$ - $f\bar{\imath}$ hia $\hat{\imath}$, 'only by filial piety being inculcated.'

Fū hiaû-chè..... yè (6. d. 10—22) is an elegant passage, which cannot be literally translated; it contains an allusion to the three great powers of the universe, $s\bar{a}n$ -ts-as as the Chinese call heaven, earth, and man. It is intended to convey the idea that filial piety is that duty which contains the germ of all good principles and virtuous conduct, and the fulfilment of which produces harmony in the universe.

Ché ti-sān-tw'an (6. k. 20). This annotation might have referred to an earlier portion, but here begins the subject of filial piety, and the author having but a limited space, he deemed it right to omit the first two sections of notes.

for your generosity and kindness, I ought to receive your commands, but the fact is this,—'My heart returns like arrow fleet,'—to-day, and at once, I am about to proceed on my journey; as regards the enjoyment of your hospitality I will remain to receive it another day, that will do." Going towards the outer door he was about to depart, when Mr. Kwo stopped him, saying: "For good friends to meet without drinking, would truly cause the wind and the moon to smile (at men)! Admitting that you are in haste to travel, still you ought to yield, and remain three days." It said: "I am really about to travel, it is not a mere refusal, I beg of you, Sir, to excuse me." Having spoken, he again turned to the door; but Kwo with one hand took hold of him and said: "I, although I, your humble servant, am without talent, yet you should consider that I am the son of an official family, you, Sir, should not look upon me very lightly, if indeed you do despise me, then you ought not to have come to take notice of me. Having obliged me with your kind regard, then you should look upon me as your host; and I, in thus urging you to remain, only wish in a slight degree to fulfil a host's friendliness and nothing more.

Translation of the Extract from the Haú-k'iû chuến (2), v. native text, page 9.

I have nothing else to ask. I do not know what you can see to oppose so much." Mr. Ti said: "Being under obligation, Sir, for your extreme kindness, I, for my part, can hardly allow myself to speak of going; but as every thing is packed, and my face is set (homewards) like a running stream in haste, the circumstances will not permit me to delay at all." Kwo said: "It being so, Sir, that you take not friendly feeling as your disposition, but are in a hurry to depart; if I were to urge your stay, I should be ashamed of myself. the fact is just this, early in the morning you come fasting, and if I were to allow you to depart without breakfast, my mind would be truly ill at ease. As it is I would not presume to detain you for long, only a very little time, to take a slight meal, and then we may hear of your departure, and it may be said that all those human feelings of ours are mutually satisfied. You cannot, Sir, still be unwilling to remain." Ti, who as far as he was concerned did not wish to stay, when he saw the deep feeling and generous behaviour (of his host) entreating him to wait, abode where he was, and said, "In a mere visit why should I trouble you so much?" Kwo said: "When good friends meet, then they forget personal feelings; you, Sir, are a shrewd man of learning, why do you make use of this formal expression?" Just as he was speaking and before he had finished, who should they see but Shwüi-yün walking up and coming in. On seeing Ti, he rapidly went through the salutations, and with his face all smiling he adressed him and said: "Yesterday my little niece being moved by your coming so far Mr. Ti to honour us with your compliments, deputed me to present a card, and to offer an invitation, as a slight indication of our cordial feelings. We could not understand what reason you had Mr. Ti for objecting and so decidedly refusing. Now happily we have had the good fortune to meet again to-day." It said: "I came in great haste,

shū tsaù-tsaù, k'ú fǔ ts'ūng-ts'ūng; yū lì yuên-wû ch'eū-tsŏ, kú kíng tŏ i. 18. shí-chè ts' î-sié; tsi kīn-ji chī laî, yi pŭ-kwó yuén yi shi-kīng, yè ậr j. 4. mûng Kwô-hiūng, tsi chān-chān t'eû-hiā; yŭ-liû, k'ùng fī lì; yŭ k'ú, j. 22. yiú k'ùng fī ts'îng; chíng tsaí-tsž fí ch'eú-ch'û, híng laù-ūng yiù ì kiaúk. 2. chī." Shwüi-yún taú: "Kù-chī haù pâng-yiù, k'īng kaí jû kú; Tǐ siēnk. 18. sāng yữ Kwó shé-ts īn, nân-taú tsiú pǔ-jû kù jîn! naì pĩ k ū-k ū yū l. 3. shí-sử jú-tsz, shīn fī-î yè!" Kwó siaú taú: "Hwân-shí laù-tà-jîn 1. 20. shườ-tẽ t'úng-kw'aí!" Tĩ kiến ár jîn hú-siāng kw'àn-liû, kìng pǔ kì m. 6. m. 21. ts iên tsîng, chĕ jin-tsó haù-i, pién siaú-yĭ-siaú tsó-hiá, pŭ fừ yên k'ú. Pŭ-tō-shî peî-sháng tsiù laî. Kwó tsiú súng tsó. Tǐ taú: "Yuên n. 8. mûng liên chaū-kī ậr sheū ts'àn, weí-hô yiú laû tsź-tsiù? k'ùng yìn fī n. 22. k'î shî yè!" Kwó siaú taú: "Mán-mán yìn k'ű, shaù-pŭ-tĕ yû-chŏ 0.8. yìn-shî." Sān-jîn kū-kŏ tá-siaú tsiú tsó ậr yìn. 0. 23.

10. Extract from the Haú-k'iû chuến (3), v. native text, page 10.

Yuên-laî sān-jîn yù kiŭ-pĭ-sāng, k'ū shí haù-yiù; yĭ-niēn sháng a. 5. sheù, piēn tsīn-tsīn yiù wí;—'nì yĭ-peī, ngò yĭ-chàn,' piēn pǔ fǔ tūī-tsź. a. 20. Yìn-liaù pwán-shàng, Tĩ chíng-yiù kó chú-sheù chĩ í, hwữ-jên tsó-yiú b. 7. paù Wâng, Pīng-pú tǐ, sān kūng-tsž laî-liaù. Sān jîn chĕ-tǐ t'îng-peī b. 22. tsǐ-kién. Kwó tsiú gān-tsó taú: "Wâng-hiūng laî tǐ shīn-miaú!" c. 8. Yīn yúng sheù chì-chŏ Tǐ taú: "Tsz wei Tǐ-hiūng, haû-kǐ sz yè! C. 21. d. 6. Pŭ-k'ò pŭ-hwüí!" Wâng taú: "Mŏ-fī tsiú-shí tà-jǐ Tá-gān-heú yàngd. 22. hiēn-táng tǐ Tí T'ìng-sāng mó ?" Shwüì-yün máng tă-taú: "Chíngshí! chíng-shí!" Wâng yīn chûng-fǔ kù sheù-tsǔ kùng-taú: "Kiùc. 5. yàng! kiù-yàng! Shǐ-kìng! shǐ-kìng!" Yīn mwàn Chīn yǐ-kū-shāng, е. 18. súng-yù Tǐ taú: "Tsiè Kwó-hiūng chī tsiù, liaû-piaù siaù-tí yàngf. 1. mú chī sz." Tǐ tsĩ-liaù yè chīn yǐ-shāng hwüî-kíng taú: "Siaù-tí f. 15. ts ū haû, hô-tsŭ taŭ taî-hiūng, jû kīn, jû jŭ." Fāng-tĭ wận-p ìn chī f. 30. g. 16. chíng, pì-tsà kiaū-tsán. Yǐ-liên tsiú-shí sān-kū-shāng; Tǐ chíng yaú kaú chì, hwữ tsò-yiú yiú paù Lì, Hán-lîn tǐ ár kūng-tsà laî-liaù. g. 30.

The maxim on page 7 is the 5th of the sixteen original maxims.

The pages 8—12 of the Chrestomathy contain a passage from the Haû-k'iû chuén, a notice of which will be found on page 17 of Part II. In this work, a perusal of the whole of which we would recommend to the student of Chinese, we see, as Sir John Davis aptly says, "portrayed by a native hand this most singular people in almost every variety and condition of human life.

"Quicquid agunt homines—votum, timor, ira, voluptas, Gaudia, discursus—nostri est farrago libelli."

See the Preface to his admirable translation, "The Fortunate Union."

The student will observe that the absolute clause, which may be translated by a clause beginning with having or being, is of very frequent occurrence in Chinese composition. The first thing to do is to unite the characters and syllables which form phrases or grammatical words,—nouns, verbs, or attributive expressions. Such are swān-ki (8. a. 6, 7), which, though verbs generally, are here united to form a noun,—'plans.' Then ting-liau is a verb, 'being fixed;' tsz-ji (a. 11, 12) is a phrase, 'the next day,' just as in English, 'he came next day' for 'he came on the next day,' the word on being omitted in Chinese, as in

and I am going again without delay; -with respect to greetings, for my own part, I have no politeness, therefore respectfully relying upon you Sir, the messenger, I must decline with thanks; for my coming to-day was only to acknowledge a visit and to render my obligations to Mr. Kwo, who most assiduously invited me to stay. Should I wish to stay, I fear it would be improper; should I wish to go, I also fear lest it might not be kind: just at this troublesome juncture of my embarrassment, fortunately you, respected Sir, are come to direct me." Shwii-yün said: "Good friends of the olden time were inclined to conceal such reasons; you Mr. Ti and my relation Mr. Kwo are for sooth as good as the ancients!-but to confine yourselves strictly to the world's customs in this manner, would certainly not be right." Kwo laughed and said: "Of a surety my old friend speaks with an acute shrewdness." Ti seeing that they both were alike wishing to detain him as a guest, now forgot his earlier dispositions, and feeling well disposed in mind, (then) he smiled, sat down, and spoke no more of going. Soon after this, wine was served up; Mr. Kwo then showed him a seat. But Mr. Ti said: "I am much obliged indeed for your consideration of my morning fast, and for giving me refreshment, but why do you also trouble yourself to bestow wine on me; I suspect this is not a time to drink." Kwo, laughing, said: "Go on drinking a little, and presently we shall find it is drinking time." All three laughed outright, and sat down to their cups.

Translation of the Extract from the Haú-k'iû chuến (3), v. native text, page 10.

Now the three happened to be good friends with the wine, and directly they raised their hands to drink, (then) they felt an increasing relish for it; and when they had once pledged each other, (then) they did not again decline drinking. After drinking three horns, and just as Mr. Ti thought of stopping, all at once the attendants announced that the third son of Wang, of the Board of War, had arrived. The three gentlemen had merely put down their glasses to receive him, when Kwo proceeded to seat him comfortably, saying: "Mr. Wang it is a good thing that you are come." Then with his hand he pointed to Ti, saying: "This gentleman, Mr. Ti, is a hero and a scholar, you ought to make his acquaintance." Wang replied: "Surely it is no other than that Ti t'ing-sang, who forcibly entered the Pleasure palace of Tá-gān-heú?" Shwii-yün, hastily replying, said: "Quite so! quite so!" Wang then renewing his salutations with respect said: "I have looked forward to this pleasure! I was ignorant of the honour!" Then, filling a large wine-cup, he presented it to Ti, saying: "I borrow Mr. Kwo's wine to show in a small degree my private feelings of respect." Ti received it, and having poured out a cup in return, politely said: "I am a common person, what have I worthy of mention; but your qualities, Sir, may be compared to gold and jewels." Then after reciprocal praises on degree of scholarship and rank had been passed between them, and three cups had been drunk in succession, just as Ti was about to say he must stop, on a sudden the attendants again made an announcement that the second son of

Sź-jîn chíng yaú k'i shīn siāng-yîng; nà Lì kūng-tsż ì-tseù taú sǐh. 17. i. 3. ts iên chì-chứ taú: "Siāng-shư hiững-tí, pừ siaū túng-shīn, siaù-tí kīng tsiú tsó pá!" Kwó taú: "Sháng yiù yuèn-k'ĕ tsaí-tsż." Tǐ t'ing i. 17. j. 1. shwŏ, yiú tǐ lî sǐ yaú tsŏ lì. Nà Lì tsiè pǔ tsŏ yĕ, siēn k'án-chŏ Tǐ wán taú: "Haù yīng tsiún jîn-wă!" Tsiè tsìng-kiaú chàng-hiūng-tí j. 19. síng taî-haú? Ti taú: "Sîaù-tí naì tá-mîng, Ti Chūng-yǔ." Lì taú k. 2. k. 17. ché-tàng shwo shí, Ti Tū-hién ti chàng kiūn-tsž; liên-liên tsŏ-yi taú: 1. 3. "Kiù-wận tá-mîng, kīn-jǐ yiù yuên-híng hwüí!" Kwó-tsiú yaū jǐ-tsó. Tǐ tsz-shî tsiù-ì-pwán-hān, yiú siàng yaú-hîng; yīn ts'z shwŏ-taú: l. 18. "Lì hiững ts'aî laî, siaù-tí pàn-pŭ-kaī tsiú yaú k'ú, chĕ yīn laî tĭ tsaù, m. 4. t aŭ yìn kwó tō, hwáng hîng sĩ kũng-tsũng, pừ nậng kiù-chú; chẽ-tĩ m. 21. n. 6. yaú siēn pǐ-liaù." Lì yīn tsŏ-sǐ taú: "Tǐ-hiūng yè t'aí-k'ī jîn / kīyaú-hîng, hô pừ tsaù k'ú? Weí-hô siaù-tí kāng taú, tsiú yǐ-k'ĕ yè pừ n. 22. nâng liû? ché-shí mîng k'ī siaù-tí! Pǔ tsử yữ yìn-liaù!" Shwüì-yūn 0. 9. taú: "Tǐ siēn-sāng k'ú, shí yaú k'ú-kiù-liaù!" 0. 24.

11. Extract from the Haú-k'iû chuến (4), v. native text, page 11.

Tǐ wứ-naí chẽ-tǐ yiú fữ tsó-hiá, yữ Lì tüí yìn-liaù sān-kū-shāng. a. 5. a. 22. Yìn-ts aî-wan, hwă tsò-yiú yiú paù-taú Chāng kāng-k'iŏ tǐ tá kūng-tsà b. 8. laî-liaù. Chúng-jîn hwân wi ki tă-ying, chĕ-kién ná Chāng kūng-tsż waī-taí-chŏ yĭ-tìng fāng-kīn yè siê-chŏ liàng-chĕ sĭ-yèn, tsaū-paū-chŏ b. 23. yĭ-kó mà-lién, tsaù k'ĭ-tĭ tsüí hiūn-hiūn, yĭ-lú kiaū tsiāng-tsìn-laî taú: C. 10. "Nà yĭ-wei shi Ti hiũng, ki yaú taú ngò li ch'îng-hiên laî, tsó haû-kĭ, C. 27. tsāng pǔ-hwii ngò yǐ-hwii?" Ti chíng lǐ-k'ì shīn laî tà-cháng yù t'ā d. 14. shī lì, kién t'ā yên-yû pŭ-sán, piēn lǐ-chứ tă-yíng taú: "Siaù-tí piēnd. 30. shí T'i t'îng-sāng, pŭ-chī chàng-hiūng yaú hwiii siaù-ti, yiù hô tsźe. 17. f. 2. kiaú?" Chāng yè pǔ-weî lì, ch'îng-chŏ yèn k'ān Tǐ, k'ān-liaù yiú-k'ān, hwŭ tá-siaŭ shwŏ-taŭ: "Ngò chĕ-taŭ Tĭ-hiūng shí tsĭ-kó t'eû pă-kó f. 17. g. 3. tàn tỉ haù Hán-tsż!—K'iŏ yuên-laî ts'īng-ts'īng meî-mŭ, pĕ-pĕ miénk'ùng | - wû-í yū nù-tsz | -- siàng-shí Tsín-heú | heú tsó-liaù sź yû, tsiè g. 18. mán-kiàng; tsiè siēn kiaú-yǐ-kiaú tsiù-liáng, k'ān shí jû-hô?" Chúngh. 4. jîn t'ing-liaù, k'ū tsán-meì taú: "Chāng-hiũng miaú-lán tá-ti yīngh. 18. hiûng pàn-sĩ!" Tsiè ts'ìng yǐ-shāng yǐ-yìn ậr kān tsź kān-liaù, sũī i. 2. i. 17. kữ k'ùng-shāng yaú chaú-kān. Từ kiến t'ā kān-từ shwâng-kw'aí, wûnaí-hô yè chě-tí mièn-k'iàng k'í-kān-liaù. Chāng-taú: "Ts'aî siáng j. 1. kó páng-yiù yĭ-mién!" Yiú kiaū tsò-yiú chīn-k'ì liàng-shāng. j. 15.

English. Observe that words expressing 'then' as a mark of sequence are often used in Chinese, where in English we should omit them: e.g. tsiu (8. a. 16), tsau (8. c. 14), fung-tsau (8. h. 1, 2), and often. Several expressions occur in this extract, which are set phrases for particular occasions, and partake of the nature of proverbs or common sayings, and, as such, cannot be explained by the ordinary rules of grammar: e.g.—

kwei-sīn sz-tsién (8. k. 12) 'returning heart as arrow (fleet).'
fūng-yü siaŭ-jîn (8. l. 18) 'the winds and moon would smile at man.'
hîng-sī kūng-ts'ūng (q. b. 7) 'my face is set like running stream to go.'

Li, Fellow of the Imperial Acadamy, had come. Just as the four gentlemen were rising to receive him, this Mr. Li had walked into the festive scene, and stopping, said: "Old friends like us will not take up time in moving, I am already seated." Kwo said: "But there is a guest here from a distance!" When T' heard this said, he left the table, and sought to make the salutations. The aforesaid Mr. Li did not make any bow, but he first looked at Ti and said: "A fine superior sort of man! Be so good, Sir, to tell me your surname and name (eminent designation)." Ti replied: "My proper name is Ti Chūng-yŭ." Li said as follows: "It is Ti, the Censor's eldest son." Repeatedly bowing, he went on to say: "I have long ago heard of your great name, to-day by some good providence we have happily met." Kwo then invited him to be seated. Ti at this time being half-overcome with wine, and besides that thinking of taking his departure, (then) declined with these words: "Since Mr. Li is just come, I properly ought not to go, but I came early, and I feel ashamed of having drunk so much, and much more for this reason that I am in great haste to travel, and cannot remain long, indeed I wished before to go." Li then changed countenance and said: "Mr. Ti is very insulting, if he wished to go, why did he not go sooner? Why just when I came, then all on a sudden he could not stay? this is clearly an insult to me; I am not good enough to drink with!" Shwüi-yün said: "Mr. Ti wished to leave a good while ago."

Translation of the Extract from the Haú-kiû chuến (4), v. native text, page 11.

Ti had no other alternative but to sit down again, and with Li to drink three large cups. When they had finished drinking, suddenly the attendants announced that the eldest son of Chang, a person of distinction, had arrived. Before any one had time to reply, they see Mr. Chang, with his dress all awry, with his eyes askant, and with a rakish air, having made himself drunk betimes, come rolling in, crying: "Which is Mr. Ti, who is come to our ancient city and place to play the hero? how is it he did not favour me with a visit?" Ti was just then standing up, preparing to salute him, but when he saw that his expressions were uncivil, he drew himself up and replied: "Your humble servant's name is Ti t'ing-sang, I was ignorant that you, Sir, wished to meet me; pray what are your commands?" Chang still made no bow, but, looking straight at Ti, he stared and stared again; then, bursting into a loud laugh, he said: "Why I expected to find Mr. Ti a seven-headed and eighthearted Chinaman, and behold he has fine blue eyes and a pale countenance, just like a girl. I believe he is a mere effeminate, and bye and bye we will say more about it, but first let us try his capacity for wine and see what it is." They all heard and praised the plan highly, saying: "Mr. Chang speaks well, with the real spirit of a great hero!" Then they proposed a bumper to be drained, and when it was drained they raised the empty oup to show that it was dry. T'i, seeing that they drained theirs without being the worse for it, had no alternative but, perforce, to drink off his own. Chang said: "Come now, that's friendly!" and called the attendants to refill the cups. But Ti

taú: "Siaù-tí tsó-kiù tǐ yiú p'eî Wâng-hiūng sān-shāng, Lì-hiūng j. 29. sān-shāng, fāng ts aî yiú k'ú p'eî chàng-hiūng yĭ-shāng. Tsién-liàng k. 13. yiù hien." Chāng-taú: "Kí Wâng, Lì, ár-hiūng k'ū liên sān-shāng, k. 26. l. 9. hô từ siaù-tí yaú yǐ shāng ậr chì?—shí k'ī siaù-tí liaù! ts'ûng-pử sheú jîn chī k'ī!" Chāng piēn mwàn-liên t'ān-nú taú: "Kiàngl. 25. mîng tüí-yìn ngò kǐ-liaù, nì jû-hô pŭ-kǐ? mŏ-fī nì ì k'iàng kī ngò m. 7. mó?" Ti yi-shî tsüí-ti shīn tū yuèn-liaù, kaú-chŏ ì-tsz, chĕ yaû-t'eû m. 25. taú: "K'ĭ-tĭ-piēn, k'ĭ; k'ĭ-pŭ-tí-piēn, pŭ-k'ĭ; yiù shīn-mô k'iâng?" n. 12. Chāng-taú: "Ché peī-tsiù, nì kàn pǔ k'ǐ mó?" Tǐ taú: "Pǔ-k'ĭ!" n. 27. Chẳng tá-nú taú: "Nì tsảng kàn taú ngò Shān-tũng laî chwảng-0. 11. k'iāng. Nì pŭ-k'i ngò chí-peī-tsiù ngò piēn yaú nì k'i liaù k'ú!" 0. 24.

12. Extract from the Haú-k'iû chuến (5), v. native text, page 12.

Yīn nâ-k'ì nà peī tsiù laî chaú chŏ Ti kiă-t'eû kiă-lién, chĕ yĭ-kiaū. a. q. Tǐ, sũĩ-jên tsũi-liaù, sĩn-sháng kiờ-wân mîng-pă. Yǐ-kǐ kǐ-tǐ hò-sĩng a. 26. lwán-pìng; yīn tsiāng-tsiù tū kǐ-sīng-liaù; wâng-t'iaú k'ì-shīn laî, b. 13. b. 27. tsiāng Chāng yǐ pà chaú chứ jaù liaù liàng jaù taú: "Tsāng kàn taú hù-t'eû sháng laî, sîng sź!" Chāng tá kiaū taú: "Nì kàn tà ngò mó?" C. 11. Tǐ piến yĩ-chàng taú: "Tà nì piễn tsặng-mó?" Kwó tsaî hwá-taú: c. 26. "Haù-í liû yìn, naì kàn î-tsiù să yè! kw aí kwān mận pũ-yaú tseùd. 10. liaù! tsiè tà t'ā kó tsiù-sīng!" Tsaù liàng siāng tseù-ch'ŭ ts'ĭ-pă-kó d. 26. tá-hán. Tí siaú-yǐ-siaú taú: "Yǐ-k'iûn fūng keù! tsāng-kàn laî k'ī е. 11. e. 26. jîn!" Yīn yĭ-sheù chǔ-chú Chāng pǔ-fáng, yĭ-sheù tsiāng taî-tsz yĭhiēn nà siē hiaû-chán wàn-chàn, tà-fān yǐ-tí. Shwii-yiin kāng tseù-taú f. 11. shīn-piēn, p'î Ti che yi-t'ii taú: "K'án Shwiì siaù-tsiē fān-sháng, f. 27. jaû nì; tà tsaù t'üī-tǐ-k'ú, yiù cháng yuèn-kín tǐ-taū tí sháng; pă g. 11. g. 28. pŭ-k'ì-laî. Ti tsiāng Chāng t'î tsiāng k'ì-laî chĕ yĭ-sheù saú-tĭ chūngh. 15. jîn tũng-taú-sĩ-waĩ. Chẳng yuên-shí kó sǐ-lí, nüí hwā tsiù hiũng hū tǐ mwàn-k'eù kiaū-taú: "Tá-kiā pŭ-yaú túng-sheù! yiù hwá haùi. 1. kiàng!" Tǐ taú: "Mĭ shīn hwá kiàng; chĕ haù-haù sũng ngò ch'ǔ i. 15. i. 28. k'ú, piên wán sz tsiuên hiū. Jŏ yaú kiuēn-liû, kiaū nì jîn-jîn tū sz." j. 14. Chāng liên-liên ying-chîng taú: "Ngò súng nì! Ngò súng nì!" Fáng Tí tsiāng Chāng fáng-pîng, chán wạn-liaù yǐ-sheù t'î-chŏ tsź-pú-liaù j. 27. ch'ŭ-laî, chúng-jîn yèn tsāng-tsāng k'án, chŏ-k'í tī-pĕ-t'ìng, yiú pŭ kàn k. 12. sháng-ts iên, chĕ-haù tsaí-p ang shwŏ-ngáng-hwá, taú: "Kàn tsāng k. 28.

Kiù-pǐ-sāng (10. a. 10) is a cake used in the fermentation of wine. Pǐ-sāng refers probably to the sprouting of the grain from which the liquor is made; and this whole expression seems to be used here, by metonomy, for the wine itself, just as John Barleycorn is employed in our own language for ale or beer.

Ni yi-pei, ngò yi-chàn (10. a. 26) is a graphic form of expression, perhaps the proper form for inviting another to take wine, in pledging one another. Pwān-shàng (10. b. 9), lit. 'half the forenoon,' consequently 'three hours.' Observe that ching, when used for 'just as,' takes the second place when the subject of the sentence is mentioned (cf. 10. b. 12). The polite expression in 10. e. 17—24. is hard to translate into English, but the version we have given conveys very nearly the signification intended in the original.

exclaimed: "Your humble servant has been sitting a long time, and has just now taken three cups with Mr. Wang, three cups with Mr. Li, and now one cup with you, Sir; my shallow capacity has a limit." Chang replied: "Having taken three cups with each of our brethren, Wang and Li, why with me, only one cup and then stop? This is to insult me! I have never yet been insulted by any body!" He then swelled with suppressed rage, and said: "Apologise by drinking in reply to me! Why don't you drink? Surely you intend to insult me excessively, don't you?" Ti now being nearly overcome with what he had drunk, leaned back in his chair and, shaking his head, exclaimed: "When it is convenient to drink, then I drink; when it is not convenient to drink, I won't drink; where is the excessive insult?" Chang said: "This cup of wine will you dare not to drink it?" Ti said: "I won't drink it!" Chang, in a great rage, cried: "Why do you dare to come to our Shan-tung to show these airs; if you will not drink this cup of wine of mine, I will make you drink it."

Translation of the Extract from the Haú-k'iû chuến (5), v. native text, page 12.

He then took up the cup of wine and dashed it completely over the head and face of Ti, who, although in a state of intoxication, yet had his wits about Suddenly his ardent temper was roused, and all confusion of mind was dissipated; and, as far as the wine went, he was sobered. He jumped up in an instant and, having seized Chang with a firm grasp, he swung him round twice, saying: "How dare you venture to come, seeking death, with a tiger?" Chang, with a loud voice, cried: "Do you dare to strike me?" Ti, then giving him a slap, replied: "If I strike you, what then?" Kwo then put in a word: "A fine idea to stay drinking, and then, relying on the wine, to make a disturbance!—quickly shut the door and let no one go out! Then beat him until he is sober!" At once from two adjacent rooms came forth seven or eight strong fellows. But Ti, with a smile, said: "You pack of mad dogs, how dare you come to insult a man!" Then with one hand he gripped tightly hold of Chang and with the other he lifted the whole table of refreshments and scattered them on the ground. Shiii-yiin just then having approached him, was pushed by Ti with the words: "Having a regard for your niece I spare you a little:" as he hurled him several feet away, where he fell sprawling on the ground unable to rise. Ti then took Chang, and with one hand sweeping him round, he scattered them all in every direction. Now Chang, who was a man of vicious habits and was enervated with wine and debauchery, cried out with all his might: "Every one be still!—we will hold a parley!" Ti replied: "There is no need of that; only show me out, and then a host of troubles will be avoided; but if you should force me to remain, I will be the death of every one of you!" Chang then repeatedly answered: "I'll show you out!-I'll show you out!" Then Ti took Chang and set him up, and having placed him firmly upon his legs, with one hand he held him and marched out, while the rest fiercely looked on and angrily stood forward, but not daring to advance, they merely uttered aside their boasts, saying: "How dare he thus

l. 10. jû-tsž hû weî, tsiè jaû t ā k û, shaù-pǔ-tǐ yaú kién kó kuū hid!" Tǐ
l. 27. chĕ tsŏ-pǔ-t îng-kién, t î-chŏ Chāng chǐ t ûng tseù-ch ǔ tá-mận chī waí,
m. 13. fāng tsiāng-sheù fáng k aī taú: "Fân Chāng-hiūng ch uên yû chū-m. 25. hiūng; ngò, Tǐ Chūng-yǔ, jŏ yiù tsān tǐ tsaí sheù, tsiēn-kiūn wán-mà
n. 10. chūng, yè pǔ-kò ch ù-jîn, hô hwāng sān-wù kó tsiù-sǐ chī t û, shǐ sú
n. 27. kó Hán chì-wáng-yaú liǔ màng hù chī pín! Hô k î yû yè!" Tsiāng0. 12. sheù yǐ-kù taú: "Tsìng-liaù!" Kīng tá-tă pú-hwül hiá-chú laî.

13. Extract from the Shwüi-hù chuến (1), v. native text, page 13.

Shwüì-hù chuén. Hwá-shwŏ kù Súng Chĕ-tsūng Hwâng-tí tsaía. I. K'î-shî Súng Jîn-tsūng T'iēn-tsz i yucn, Tūng-kīng, K'aī-fūng 8. 14. fù Pién-liâng, siuēn-wù-kiūn pién yiù yĭ-kó feû-lâng p'ó-lŏ-hú tsż-tí, síng, Kaū; p'aî-hâng, tí-ár; tsź-siaù pŭ-ch'îng kiā-nǐ; chĕ haù ts'źb. 15. ts iâng shí-p'àng, tsüí-shí t'í-tĕ-haú kiŏ-k'í-k'iû. Kīng-sz jîn k'eù-shán b. 30. pŭ-kiaŭ Kaŭ-ár, kiŏ tū kiaŭ t'ā tso, Kaŭ-k'iû. Heú-laî fă-tsĭ pién c. 16. tsiāng k'í-k'iû nà-tsz k'ú-liaù maû p'âng t'iēn tsŏ-li jîn pién-kaì-tsŏ d. 2. d. 18. síng, Kaū; mîng, K'iû. Ché jîn ch'uī, t'ân, kō, wù, ts'ź-ts'iâng, shíp'âng, siãng-pŏ, wân-shwà; yǐ hû-lwán hiŏ shī-shū ts'ê-fú; jŏ lán jînе. 1. í-lì-chí-sín-hîng-chūng-liâng, kiŏ-shí pữ hwüí; chĕ tsaí Tūng-kīng, e. 17. ch'îng-lì ch'îng-waí pāng-hiên. Yīn pāng-liaù yǐ-kò sāng, Tǐ-wâng f. 2. f. 16. yuên-waí âr-tsz, shí-ts iên. Meī-ji sān-wà liàng-shé, fūng-hwâ-sŭyŭ; p'ì t'ā fú-tsīn K'aī-fūng fù-lì kaú-liaù yĭ-chí wận-chwáng fù-yùn g. 1. pà Kaū-kiû twán-liaù ár-shī kiuén cháng shi p'ei ch'ŭ-kiaì fă-fáng g. 18. h. 3. Tũng-kĩng, ch'îng-lì jîn-mîn pữ hứ-yứng t'ā tsaí kiā sử-shĩ. Kaữ-k'iứ h. 19. wû-t'aù naí-hô, chĕ-tĕ laî Hwaí-sī Lín-hwaí cheū t'eû-pán yǐ-kô k'aī i. 6. tù-fâng tĩ hiện Hán Liû Tá-lâng, mîng-hwán Liû Shí-kiuên. pîng-sāng chuēn haù sĩ k'ẽ yàng hiện-jîn chaú nă sź-fāng yū kă laú i. 20. Hán-tsz. Kaū-k'iû t'eû tŏ-tĕ Liû Tá-lâng kiā yĭ-chű sān-niên. j. 6.

Liaû-piaû (10. f. 10) and yàny-mû (10. f. 14), 'a slight mark of respect,' seem to be the formal expressions for these notions. They are united in one expression in 8. d. 21—26, and are in both places thrown into the position of an attribute; and, though the form of the sentence cannot be preserved, the force of it will be easily seen in each case.

Haû yīng tsiún jîn-wů! (10. j. 21) is a combination of irony and contempt. Chổ in the description of Mr. Chāng (11. b. 25; c. 2; and c. 9) is the proper auxiliary verb (cf. Art. 197 of Part I) to form the past tense or past participle; it is, however, frequently used where, in some languages, no past tense would be employed, but only the 'historical' present. The above passages may be translated by having, or being so and so, as in an absolute clause.

Shwül-hù chuến (13. a. 1—3). The student may refer to page 17 of the Introduction to the Chrestomathy for a few notes on this work. The title of it does not clearly indicate the nature of its contents, which are of a very varied character; but it conveys an allusion to a story in the Shi-king, where a certain ancient prince is said to have escaped with some of his loyal followers from a horde of Tartars. The events narrated in this novel are so far similar to his adventures in, that they treat of the troubles which arose out of the wars which happened in China at the end of the Sung dynasty (A. D. 1281). (Cf. Bazin, Le Siècle des Youên, p. 111.) The style of this work is peculiar, and cannot be deemed a good specimen for imitation. The construction of the sentences however, and the use of appropriate par-

to act violently? but let him go, we shall soon see his loftiness brought down!" To only made as though he heard them not, but keeping fast hold of Chang he walked with him out at the front door; then, having loosed his grasp of him, he said: "I will trouble you, Mr. Chang, to return and tell your friends, that, with an inch of steel in my hand, I, Ti Chung-yū, even though amidst troops of cavalry, would not permit any one to stop my exit,—how much less likely is it that three or four drunken and profligate rascals, with the help of a dozen fellows, should beard the tiger in his fury! What a piece of folly!" So saying, he raised his hands, ceremoniously bowed, and then strode homewards.

Translation of the Extract from the Shwür-hù chuến (1), v. native text, page 13.

History of the River's banks, or Stories of Banditti.

It said that in the time of the Emperor Che-tsung of the ancient Sung dynasty, at a period remote from the days of his celestial majesty Jin-tsung, there lived in the eastern capital, Kai-fung fu in the Pien-liang garrison, a dissipated youth belonging to a decayed family, of the name of Kau. He was the second son, and consequently he had not for himself any of the family fortune, but he was clever in the use of the spear and the cudgel, and very expert at kicking the foot-ball. The men of the metropolis did not call him Kau-ur (his proper name), but, with freedom of speech, they all called him Kau-Kiu ('foot-ball'), hence we see the cause of this character kiu ('ball') being attached to this man's name; so that it was changed thus: surname Kau, name K'iu. This man could play on wind instruments and stringed instruments; he could sing and dance, fence and cudgel, and was fond of trifling amusements; he had * also studied in a desultory manner the Shi-king, the Shu-king, and both prose and poetry; but as for deeds of kindness, justice, propriety, prudence, and fidelity, he knew just nothing about them. He merely spent his time within and without the city, aiding idlers in their pursuits; and he formed a connection in this way with the son of an officer of superior rank, named Wang, and helped him to spend his money. Every day brought with it a round of dissipation. But Wang's father wrote an accusation against him to the chief magistrate of the capital, and Kau-kiu was sentenced to twenty strokes on the back, and, besides that, to go into exile. All the inhabitants of the metropolis were forbidden to receive him into their houses to board or to lodge. Kuu-kiu having no other resource, just proceeded to Hwai-si; and having come to Lin-hwai cheu, he repaired at once to a certain vagabond Chinaman, Liu Ta-lang, who had opened a gambling-house, and went by the name of Liu Shi-kinen. He took pleasure in receiving and feeding all idle loungers; and had also invited, from all sides, the Chinamen engaged in the dykes and drains. Kau-k'iu found a home in Liu Ta-lang's family, where he remained three years.

^{*} Cf. Prémare's Notitia Linguæ Sinicæ, p. 140.

Heú-laî Chĕ-tsūng T'iēn-tsà, yīn paí Nân-kiaū kàn-tĕ fūng t'iaû j. 21. k. 5. yù shán fáng kwān yīn tá shé t'iēn-hiá; nà Kaū-k'iû tsaí Lín-hwaī Cheū, yīn tĕ-liaù shé-yiú tsüí-fàn, sź-liâng yaú hwüî Tūng-kīng. Ché k. 20. Liû Shí-kiuên kiŏ hô Tūng-kīng ch'îng-lì Kīn-liûng k'iaû-hiá k'aīl. 5. l. 20. yŏ-pú-tĭ, Tûng Tsiāng-sź shí tsīn-sǐ siè-liaù yī-fūng-shū-chă sheú-shǐ siè jîn-sź pw'an-ch'ên tsĩ fặ Kaū-k'iû hwüî Tũng-kĩng t'eû-pạn Tûng m. 7. m. 22. Tsiāng-sź kiā kwô-hwŏ. Tāng-shî Kaū-k'iử ts'ź-liaù Liû Tá-lâng peī sháng paū lì, lî-liaù Lín-hwaī cheū ì-lī hwüî-taú Tūng-kīng kíng-laî n. 7. Kīn-liâng kiaû-hiá Tûng-sāng yŏ-kiā, hiá-liaù ché-fūng-shū. n. 23. Tsiāng-sz yĭ-kièn Kaū-k'iû k'án-liaù Liû Shí-kiuên laî-shū, tsz-t'ù-lì 0. 7. sîn-sź taú: "Ché Kaū-k'iû ngò kiā jû-hô gān-chŏ-tĕ t'ā? 0. 23.

14. Extract from the Shwüi-hù chuến (2), v. native text, page 14.

Jŏ-shí kó chí-ch'îng laù-shǐ tǐ jîn, k'ò-ì yúng t'ā tsaí kiā ch'ŭ-jĭ, yè a. 7. a. 25. kiaŭ haî-âr-mân hiŏ siē haù; t'ā kiŏ-shí kó pāng-hiên tǐ p'ó-lŏ-hú, mŭ b. 13. sín-hîng tǐ jîn; yǐ-tsiè tāng-ts ū yiù kwó-fàn-laî, pî-twán-pe t tǐ jîn, kiú-sìng pǐ-pǔ-k'àng kaī. Jŏ liû chứ tsaí kiā-chūng, taú-yè-tĕ haî-ḍrb. 30. mận pử-hiờ haù-liaù, taí pử-sheū liû t'ā yiú p'i-pử-kwó Liû Tá-lâng C. 17. mién-p°î." Tăng-shî chĕ-tĕ k'iuên tsiè hwān-t'iēn-hì-tí siāng-liû tsaí kiā d. 4. d. 20. sŭ-hĭ; meī-jĭ tsiù-shĭ, kwàn taí chű-liaù shĭ sú jĭ, T'ûng Tsiāng-sź sźe. 7. liâng-ch'ŭ yĭ-kô-lú sú-tsiāng ch'ŭ yĭ-t'aú î-fŭ, siè-liaù yĭ-fūng shūe. 24. kién, tüí Kaū-k'iû shwŏ-taú: "Siaù-jîn kiā-hiá, 'yîng-hò chī kwāng, chaú jîn pử liâng,' k'ùng heú wû-liaù tsử-hiá ngò chuên tsién tsử-hiá f. 8. yữ Siaù-sū Hiŏ-sź, chú; kiù-heú yĕ tĕ-kó ch'ŭ-shīn. Tsŭ-hiá í-nüí f. 23. jû-hô?" Kaū-k'iû tá-hì, sié-liaù Tūng Tsiāng-sź. Tûng Tsiāng-sź shí kó-jîn tsiāng-chŏ shū-kièn yìn-lìng Kaū-k'iû kíng-taú Hiŏ-sź fùg. 24. h. 10. nüí. Mận-lí chuên paù Siaù-sũ Hiŏ-sź. Ch'ŭ-laû kién-liaù Kaū-k'iû k'án-liaù shữ, chī-taú Kaū-k'iû yuên-laî shí pāng-hiên feû-lâng tǐ jîn, h. 25. i. 11. sín-hiá siāny-taú: "Ngô ché-lī jû-hô gān chŏ-tĕ t'ā?—pŭ-jû tsó kó jînts'îng,—tsién t'ā kứ fù-mà Wâng Tsín-liû fù-lì, tsố kó-tsīn süî-jîn; i. 29. tũ hwān t'ā tsó Siaù-wâng Tũ T'aí-wcí t'ā piēn hì-hwān chè-yáng-tǐ j. 15. jîn." Tāng-shî hwiiî-liaù Tûng Tsiāng-sź shū-chă liû Kaū-k'iû tsaí K. 1.

ticles, as marks of the sequence of clauses, are good and worthy of the student's observation: (cf. p. 14. a. and b.) He should also notice the frequent union of two syllables, of like signification, to make one word, even among the particles: (cf. 13. c. 27; 14. b. 17; 14. l. 17; and often.)

Pién-liang (13. a. 29) was the ancient name of Kaï-fung fù.

Jin-i-li-chi-sin (13. e. 16--20), 'kindness, justice, propriety, prudence, and fidelity,' are the cardinal virtues among the Chinese.

Yuên-wai (13. f. 16) is the title of an officer of the fifth rank.

The advanced student will observe that many phrases in the Shwüi-hù differ from those in use at present: (cf. shī-ts'ien 13. f. 20.) The use of pei or pi (13. g. 2) to make a passive form of the verb is not unfrequent: (cf. 14. b. 25.)

The expression $s\bar{a}n$ - $v\bar{a}$ liang- $sh\epsilon$ (13. f. 24) cannot be literally translated so as to convey the sense, which is a sort of euphemism for a dissolute way of life. The following phrase $f\bar{u}ng$ $hv\bar{u}$ - $s\bar{u}h$ - $y\bar{u}h$ (13. f. 28) has also a similar signification, for the words 'wind, flowers,

After a time his celestial majesty, Che-tsung, when he worshipped in Nankiau, being moved with gratitude for the propitious winds and the genial rain, then extended his favour, and sent a general pardon throughout the empire. Our Kau-Kiu, in Lin-hwai cheu, took advantage of the amnesty, and contemplated returning to the capital. Now this Liu Shi-kiuen had, in the metropolitan city of Tung-king, at the foot of the Kin-liang ('Golden-beam') bridge, keeping an apothecary's shop, a relative named Tung Tsiang-sz. So, having written a letter of introduction, he collected a few things, with some money for the journey, and presented them to Kau-k'iu, bidding him on his return to Tung-king to seek a home in the family of Tung Tsiang-sz. Then Kaukiu, having taken leave of Liu Ta-lang and shouldered his bundle, departed from Lin-hwai cheu, and by easy stages returned to Tung-king. He drew near to the foot of the Kin-liang bridge, and when he had arrived at the apothecary's shop belonging to Tung, he presented his letter of introduction to Tung Tsiang-sz. Directly Tung saw Kau-k'iu and had glanced over Liu Shi-kiuen's letter, he thought within himself, saying: "How can I receive this Kau-k'iu into my family?

Translation of the Extract from the Shwiii-hà chuến (2), v. native text, page 14.

If indeed he were an honest man and sincere in purpose, he might be useful in going in and out of the house, and also in teaching the children some good things; but the fact is, he has been an associate of idlers, he is of a bankrupt house, and a man of no principle; -and besides, those who have been offenders, and have been cut off from society, certainly will not change their former dis-If he remain in my family, he will subvert the good principles of my children, and teach them nothing good; and if I do not treat him civilly and keep him, it will be about equal to brushing the skin off my friend Liu Ta-lang's face." Then he just considered within himself, and, by way of pleasing both parties, he received Kau-kiu into his family to take up his abode, daily gave him wine and food, and treated him well for a fortnight. At last Tung Tsiang-sz meditated a way out of this awkward business; he took out a new suit of clothes; and, having written a letter, he addressed himself to Kau-kiu, saying: "My poor family, like the light of the glowworm's fire, cannot make any body illustrious; and I am afraid that bye and bye it will be injurious to you, Sir. But I will recommend you, Sir, to Dr. Siau-su, and after a time you will obtain promotion. What do you think of this, Sir!" Kau-k'iu was much pleased, and thanked Tung Tsiang-sz. The latter then sent a messenger to take the letter and to direct Kau-Kiu to the Doctor's mansion. The porter announced his arrival to Dr. Siau-su, who came forth to see him. But when he had read the letter, and knew that Kau-kiu was originally an idle vagabond, he communed with himself, thus: "How shall I manage in treating this man?—but it will be best to appear friendly, and I can recommend him to go to the palace of the Emperor's son-inlaw Wang Tsin-liu, to be a private attendant on the Governor Siau-wang;—he is fond of such men." He then replied to Tung Tsiang-sz's letter, and kept 54

k. 15. fù-lì chứ-liaù yǐ-yé. Ts ź-jí siè-liaù yǐ-fūng shū ch'îng, shí kién kān jîn, súng Kaū-k'iû k'ú nà Siaù-wâng Tū T'aí-wei chú. Ché T'aí-wei

naì-shí, Chě-tsūng Hwâng-tí mí-fū, Shîn-tsūng Hwâng-tí tǐ fù-mà. l. 17.

T'ā hì-gaí fūng-liû jîn-wŭ, chíng yúng ché-yáng tǐ jîn; yǐ-kién Siaùm. 2.

m. 18. sū Hiŏ-sź chaī-jîn ch'î shū, súng ché Kaū-k'iû laî, paí kién-liaù, piēnhì, suî tsĩ siề hwuî-shū, sheū-liû Kaū-k'iû tsaí fù-nuí tsó kó tsīn-suî. n. 4.

Tsź-tsż Kaū-k'iû tsaû-tsí tsaí Wâng Tū-wei fù-chũng ch'ŭ-ji jû t'ûng n. 21.

kiā-jîn yĭ-pān; Tsź-kù taú jǐ yuèn jǐ sū jǐ ts īn jǐ kín. Hwǔ yǐ-jǐ 0. 7.

o. 25. Siaù-wâng, Tū T'aí-wei, k'ing-

15. Extract from the Shwii-hù chuến (3), v. native text, page 15.

tán sãng-shîn fān-fū fù-chūng ān-p'aî yên-yén chuēn tsìng siaù-kiù а. 1. Ché Twān-wâng naì-shí Shîn-tsūng T'iēn-tsż tí shǐ-yǐ a. 16. tsz, Chĕ-tsūng Hwâng-tí yú tí, kiến chàng tũng kiá, p'aî haú kiù táa. 30. wâng; shí kó tsūng-mîng tsiún-siaù jîn-wă, feû-láng tsż-tí mận fūngb. 15. pāng-hiên chí sź, wû yĭ-pān pŭ-hiaù, wû yĭ-pān pŭ-hwüí, kāng wû yĭb. 30. pān pŭ-gaí, jû kīn-kīn shū-hwá wû-sò-pŭ-t'úng; tĭ-k'iû, tà-tán, pīn-C. 17. d. 4. chữ t'iaû-sz; ch'iū, tán, kō wù, tsź pŭ-pĭ-shwŏ. Tāng-jǐ Wâng Tū-weí fù-chūng, hwaî pí yên-yén, shwüì lặ kū-pí tsìng Twān-wâng kú-chūng d. 21. tsó-tíng, T'aí-weí lüí-sǐ siāng-p'eî; tsiù tsín sú-peī, shǐ-kūng liàng e. 6. t'aŭ, nà $Tw\bar{a}n$ - $w\hat{a}ng$ k'ì- $sh\bar{i}n$ tsing-sheù, gaù- $la\hat{i}$ $sh\bar{u}$ - $yu\hat{e}n$ - $l\hat{i}$; shaù- $k\check{i}$ e. 21. màng-kién shū-kiā-sháng yĩ từi ậr-yâng chì yữ niền ch'ông. Chín-chì f. 6. f. 22. $s\bar{z}$ -ts \dot{z} kǐ-shí tsó-tǐ haù sí-k'iaù lîng-lûng. Twān-wâng nà-k'ì $s\bar{z}$ -ts \dot{z} pŭ-lŏ sheù, k'aù-liaù yĭ-hwüî, taú haù. Wâng Tū-wei, kién Twāng. g. wâng sīn-gai, piēn shwŏ-tai: "Tsai yiù yĭ-kó yŭ-lûng pĭ-kià, yè-shi g. 23. ché-kó tsiāng-jîn yĭ-sheù tsó-tǐ, kiŏ pŭ tsaí sheù-t'eû; mîng-jǐ ts'ù haî h. 9. yǐ-pîng siãng-súng." Twān-wâng tá-hì taú sín siế heû-í siàng, nà pǐh. 26. kā pǐ-shí kāng-miaú. Wâng Tū-wei taú: "Mîng-ji ts'ù-ch'ŭ-laî, i. 12. súng chí kûng-chŭng, piễn kiến Twān-wâng yiú siế-liaù liàng-kô, ĩi. 26. k'iú ji si yìn-yén chí mú tsín tsüí fāng sān.—Twān-wâng siāng-pi, j. 10. hwüî kūng k'ú-liaù. Ts'ź-ji Siaù wâng, Tū T'aí-weí ts'ù-ch'ŭ yŭ-lûng j. 26. pǐ-kiā hô liùng-kó chín-chì yǔ sz-tsz, chŏ yǐ-kó siaù-kīn hŏ-tsz chíngk. 11. liaù, yúng hwâng-lô paū-fi paū-liaù, siè-liaù yĭ-fūng shū ch'îng, kiŏ k. 29. shì Kaū-kiû súng-k'ú. Kaū-kiû lìng-liaù Wâng Tū-wei kiūn-chì l. 14. tsiāng-chŏ liàng-păn yữ wán k'í hwaî-chūng, ch'üì-chŏ shū-ch'îng, kíngl. 28. m. 12. t'eû Twān-wâng kûng-chūng, laî; pà mận-hwān-lí chuên-paù yù

snow, moon,' frequently imply 'an unrestrained and gay career of pleasure:' (cf. 14. m. 5. and feû-lâng 13. b. 8.)

The word Hán a is frequently used to designate 'natives of China,' especially such as are brave and manly, like the word Briton in English: (v. 13. j. 6; also 12. e. 12.)

Fù-mà (14. j. 3), 'son-in-law of the Emperor,' appears to be used as a title (cf. 15. n. 24), and tsiè-fū (16. g. 28), 'brother-in-law,' is used in speaking of another in the third person, for mi-fū (14. l. 23).

Kau-k'iu in his mansion for the night. The next day he wrote a letter of recommendation, and sent it by a business-like man, who was to guide Kau-k'iu to the mansion of the Governor Siau-wang. Now this Governor was a brother-in-law of the Emperor Chĕ-tsung, and a son-in-law of the Emperor Shin-tsung. He was very fond of elegant and rare men and things, and especially of such men as our hero. As soon as he saw Dr. Siau-su's messenger bearing a letter and introducing Kau-k'iu, he bowed and was pleased; and, having at once written a reply, he received Kau-k'iu into his house as a private attendant. From this time forward Kau-k'iu was treated in Governor Wang's mansion just as one of the family, and thus on all occasions. Now it happened one day that the Governor,

Translation of the Extract from the Shwüi-hù chuến (3), v. native text, page 15.

Siau-wang, on the occasion of the celebration of his birthday, ordered a banquet to be held in his palace, to which he invited his brother-in-law Prince Twan. Now this Prince Twan was the eleventh son of the Emperor Shin-tsung, and the younger brother of the Emperor Che-tsung. He had the supervision of the chariots and the standards of war, and he had the title of viceroy. He was a man of intelligence and beauty, and was acquainted with all the gay and frivolous people of the age; for gallantry and knowledge of the world there was not his equal. Music, literature, and painting he had thoroughly investigated, and it would be superfluous to speak of his powers in kicking foot-ball, playing on the guitar, carving, netting, and the other accomplishments of singing and dancing. On the appointed day, the Prince came to the Governor's mansion, where the feast was prepared. Having invited Prince Twan to be seated at the head of the table, the Governor took the opposite end. the wine had gone round several times, and ten courses had been despatched, Prince Twan, on rising to wash his hands, accidently entered the library, where, on a book-shelf, suddenly his eye fell on a pair of beautifully wrought ornaments representing two lions in jade-stone. They were ornamental paperweights, very finely carved and curiously figured with dragons. Prince Twan took up the lions and held them in his hands, while he kept admiring them, and saying that they were beautiful. Siau-wang, seeing that Prince Twan liked them, (then) said: "I have besides these a pencil-stand in jade wrought with dragons, made by the same artist, but just now it is not at hand; tomorrow I will find it and send it to the palace." Then Prince Twan having thanked him again and again, they returned to the saloon, where, after further carousal, they separated.—Twan-wang having departed, returned to his palace, and on the following day Siau-wang, the Governor, took out the ornamented pencil-stand of jade and, with the two paper-weights,—the lions of the same material,—he placed it in a little silver casket; and, having wrapped the whole in a handkerchief of yellow gauze, he wrote a letter, which he sent Kauk'iu to deliver. Kau-k'iu, having received Governor Wang's orders, took the two precious articles, and with the letter in his pocket, he proceeded to Prince Twan's palace. The keeper of the gate announced him to the steward, who

m. 30. yuén-kūng. Mǔ tō-shî yuén-kūng ch'ǔ laî, wán: "Nì-shì nà-kó fùn. 10. lì laî-tĩ jîn?" Kaū-kiú, shī-lì-pá, tă-taú: "Siaù-jîn shí Wâng fù-mà
n. 27. fù-chūng, tĕ-súng yǔ-wán-k'í laî-tsín tá-wâng." Yuén-kūng taú:
0. 11. "Tién-hiá tsaí t'îng-sān-lì hô siaù hwâng-mận tǐ-k'í-k'iû, nì tsź kwó0. 27. k'ú." Kaū-k'iû taú:

16. Extract from the Shwüi-hù chuến (4), v. native text, page 16.

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"Siāng-fân yìn-tsín." Yuén-kūng yìn-taú t'îng-mận. Kaū-k'iû а. т. k'án-shî kiến Twān-wâng t'eû taí juên-shā T'áng-kīn, shīn ch'uēn a. 13. tsz-siú-lûng p'aû-yaū hí wận-wù chwâng süí t'iaû pà siú-lûng p'aû a. 26. b. 11. ts iên k în i chă k'ì ch' üì tsai tiaū-ậr pien, tsư ch'uen yĭ-chwâng kànkīn-sién fī-fūng hiữ, sān-wù kó siaù hwâng-mận siāng-pwán chŏb. 26. c. 10. ts'ŭ k'í-k'iû. Kaū-k'iû pŭ-kàn kwó k'ü ch'ūng-chwáng, li tsaí ts ûng-jîn peî-heû sź-heû yè. Sź Kaū-k'iû hŏ-tāng fă-tsĭ shî yún taú C. 24. d. 11. laî nà-kó k'í-k'iû t'âng t'í k'ì-laî, Twān-wâng tsǐ-kó pǔ-chŏ hiáng-jîn ts'ûng lì chỉ kwàn taú Kaū-k'iû shīn-piēn. Nà Kaū-k'iû kiến k'íd. 28. e. 12. kirî laî, yè-shi yi-shî ti tàn liâng shi-ko yuēn-yāng kwaì ti hwân Twān-wang. Twān-wang kién-liaù tá-hì, pien wan taú: "Nì shì e. 28. shīn jîn?" Kaū-k'iû hiáng-ts'iên kweí-hiá taú: "Siaù-tĭ shí Wâng f. 11. f. 24. Tū-wei tsīn-süî, sheu tūng-jîn shi ling tsī sung lidng pān yŭ-wân-k'i g. 10. laî tsín-hiến Tá-wâng, yiù shū-ch'îng tsaí-tsz paí-sháng." Twānwâng t'îng-pá, siaù taú: "Tsiè-fū chīn jû-tsz kwá-sīn." Kaū-k'iû g. 23. ts'ú ch'ŭ shū-ch'îng tsín-sháng. Twān-wâng k'aī hŏ-tsz k'án-liaù h. 7. wân-k'í tũ tí yữ t'âng heú kwān sheū-liaù k'ú. Nà Twān-wâng tsiè h. 20. pŭ-lì yŭ-k'î hiá-lŏ; kiŏ sīn-wận Kaū-k'iû taú: "Nì ché-laî hwüí-tǐ i. 5. k'í-k'iû, nì hwān tsó shín-mó?" Kaŭ-k'iû yiú sheù kweí-feú taú: i. 22. "Siaù-tǐ kiaū-tsó Kaū-k'iû, hû lwán tǐ tĕ kì paì." Twān-wâng taú: j. 6. "Haù! nì piên hiá ch'âng laî tǐ yǐ-hiáng shwà." Kaū-k'iû paì taú: j. 21. "Siaù-tĭ shí hô tàng-yáng jîn, kàn yù gạn Wâng hiá kiă!" Twānk. 5. wâng taú: "Ché-shí ts'î-yûn shè mîng wei t'iēn-hiá yuên, tán t'i hô k. 19. shāng?" Kaū-k'iû tsai paì taú: "Tsāng kàn!" Sān-hwüî wù-ts'ź kaúl. 4. Twān-wâng tíng-yaú t'ā t'i. Kaū-k'iû chĕ-tĕ k'eú-t'eû sié-tsüí, 1. 17. kiaì-sǐ-hiá, ts'aî t'ǐ kì-kiă. Twān-wâng hờ ts'aì; Kaū-k'iû chĕ-tĕ pà m. 2. m. 19. pîng-sāng pàn-sź tū shí ch'ŭ-laî fúng-fúng. Twān-wâng nâ shīn-fān mû-yáng, ché k'í-k'iû yĭ-sz p'iaù-kiaŭ niēn tsaí shīn-sháng tǐ Twānn. 4. wâng tá-hì nà-lī k'àng fáng Kaū-k'iû hwüî fù k'ú, tsiú liû tsaí kūngn. 19. chūng kwó yǐ-yè. Ts'z-jǐ p'aî kó yên-hwüí chuēn ts'ìng Wâng Tū-weí 0. 5. 0. 20. kūng-chūng fú yén.

The use of $t\bar{a}ng^a$, for 'that,' is frequent, especially in the phrases $t\bar{a}ng$ -ji 'on that day' and $t\bar{a}ng$ -sht 'at that time:' (cf. 13, m. 27; 14, k. 2; 15, d. 16.)

The accumulation of attributes and epithets for nouns is a characteristic of the style of the Shwül-hû; e.g. feû-lûng p'ô-lö-hû tsz-tî (13. b. 8—14): (cf. 13. i. 23—27; 13. l. 14—21; and chi-ch'ing laù-shǐ tǐ jîn 14. a. 10—15.)

soon came out and asked, "From whose mansion do you come?" Kau-k'iu, having paid his respects, replied: "I am from Son-in-law Wang's house, and am come to present some precious articles of vertu to His Highness." The steward said: "He is down in the court of the palace, kicking foot-ball with other members of the imperial family;—go over there." Kau-k'iû said:

Translation of the Extract from the Shwii-hù chuến (4), v. native text, page 16.

"I will trouble you, Sir, to show me the way." Then the steward showed him to the door of the court. While Kau-kiu was looking on, he saw Prince Twan, having a turban of the T'ang dynasty, made of soft gauze, upon his head; he wore a nankeen vest embroidered with dragons, and adorned with streamers of fine muslin, with embroidered lappets turned down in front, but loosely adjusted on the side of his dress. On his feet were boots elegantly adorned with gold thread and the flying phenix. Three or four members of the imperial family were assisting him to play at foot-ball, and therefore Kau-kiu dared not to cross over to him, but he stood waiting behind the attendants. Now it happened that Kau-kiu had some experience at foot-ball, and when the ball arose from the ground and Prince Twan failed to receive it well, it fell towards the crowd at the side of Kau-kiu. As he saw the ball coming, in a moment he boldly gave it a magnificent kick and sent it back again to Prince Twan. When Prince Twan saw it, he was greatly pleased, and at once asked, saying: "Who are you?" Kau-kiu came forward and, kneeling, said: "Your humble servant is Governor Wang's private attendant, I have received some precious articles to present to Your Highness, and I have a letter also with reference to these things." When Prince Twan heard this, he smiled and said: "My brother-in-law has truly great consideration for me!" Kau-kiu then took out the letter and presented it, and Prince Twan having opened the casket and looked at the precious articles it contained, committed them unto an attendant; but before they were gone from his hand, he asked Kau-k'iu, saying: "You know how to kick foot-ball, what is your name?" Kau-kiu again made obeisance and said: "Your humble servant is called Kau-kiu, and has had some inconsiderable experience in kicking foot-ball." Prince Twan replied: "Very good! Come down to the ground and have a game." Kau-kiu bowed and said: "Your humble servant is a person of no rank, how can he presume to engage with Your Serene Highness?" Prince Twan replied: "That is, by classifying the clouds and associating great names, to make the world harmonise, but what objection is there to your kicking?" Kau-kiu again bowed and said: "How can I presume?" and after declining several times, Prince Twan insisted on his playing. So Kau-kiu just bowed his head and asked pardon, and then, rising from his knees, he went down to the playing ground and took a few kicks. Prince Twan called to the people to stand back. Kau-kiu only used his ordinary skill, but he displayed a refined and elegant deportment. Prince Twan was pleased with his manner, and requested him to stay at his palace. The next day he prepared a great feast, to which he invited Governor Siau-wang.

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17. Extract from the Sān-kwŏ chí (1), v. native text, page 17.

Tsiè-shwö Chāng-jáng Twán-kweī kiĕ-yùng shaù-tí, Sān-kwŏ chí. a. 2. kĩ Chín-liû Wâng, maú-yēn-t^{*}ŭ-hò, liên-yé pạn-tseù Pĩ-mâng shān. а. 16. Yŏ sān kāng shî-fān, heú-mién hûn shīng tá kù jîn-mà, kàn chí tāngb. 1. ts'iên Hò-nân Chūng-pú ch'uên-lí Mìn-kúng, tá hū: "Yĭ-tsĕ hiū b. 17. tseù!" Chāng-jáng kiến số kĩ, sửi t'eủ hò ậr số. Tí yữ Chín-liủ с. г. Wâng, wí chī hū-shǐ, pừ kàn kaū-shīng, fừ yū hò piên, lwán-ts aù chī с. 16. nüí. Kiūn-mà sź sán k'ú kàn, pŭ-chī Tí chī sò-tsaí. Tí yù Wâng d. 2. fǔ-chí sź-kāng, lú-shwüì yiú hiá, fǔ chūng kī nüì, siāng-paù ậr k'ǔ, yiú d. 18. p'â jîn chĩ-kiŏ, t'ān-shīng ts'aù-màng chī chūng; Chín-liû Wâng yǔ: e. 5. " Tsž kien pŭ-k'ò kiù-lwán, sū-př sîn hwŏ-lú. Yū-shí ár jîn ì î siānge. 19. kǐ, p'à sháng gán piēn, mwàn-tí kīng-kǐ, hĕ-gán chī chūng, pǔ-kién f. 7. hîng-lú; chíng wû-naí-hô, hwă yiù liû-yîng ts iēn-pĕ ch îng-k iûn, f. 22. kwāng mâng chaú yaú, chĕ tsaí Tí-ts iên fī-chuên Chín-liû Wâng g. 6. yŭ: "Tsz t'ien tsù ngò hiūng-tí yè, süí süî yîng-hò ậr hîng tsién-tsién g. 19. kién-lú, hîng chí wù kāng, tsử t'úng pử-nâng hîng, shān kāng pién h. 5. kiến yĩ-tüĩ. Tí yù Wâng ngó yū ts aù-tüĩ chĩ chũng. Ts aù-tüĩ h. 19. ts iên-mién shí yǐ-sò chwāng-yuèn, chwāng-chù shí yè mûng liàng i. 4. i. 17. hûng jĩ, chi í yū chwāng heú. K'īng-ki o p'ī-î ch' ŭ-hú, sź hiá kwān wâng-kiến chwāng-heú ts'aù-tiữ-sháng hûng-kwāng ch'ũng t'iēn. j. 2. Hwâng-mâng wàng shí, kiỏ-shí ár-jîn ngó yū ts aù-tiū-pwán. Chwāngj. 13. chữ wận yữ: "Ár shaù-niên shül-kiā chī tsè?" Tí pǔ-kàn yìng;]. 27. Chín-liû Wâng chì Tí yǐi: "Tsz shí tāng-kīn Hwâng-tí; tsaû Shǐk. 11. châng-shí chī lwán, t'aû-nân taú tsż; Wù naì Wâng tí, Chín-liû Wâng k. 25. l. 10. yè." Chwāng-chù tá k'īng tsaí paì yǔ: "Chîn siēn-chaū Sz-t'û, Ts'ūīlĩ chĩ tí, Ts' uĩ-ĩ yè. Yĩn kiến Shĩ-châng-shí maí-kwān tsĩ-hiến, kú yìn m. 11. yū-tsż." Süí fû Tí ji chwāng, kweī tsín tsiù-shi.—Kiŏ-shwŏ Mìn-

The appositional form of construction is more frequent in the Shwii-hi than in the $Ha\dot{a}\cdot h^i\dot{a}$. By the appositional form we mean to denote the aggregation of clauses, beginning with verbs which have no apparent subject, but they proceed (without any connective particle being used) to explain something in the preceding clause, and on this account we have designated them appositional.

The Sān-kwö chi, or 'History of the Three Kingdoms,' has been referred to in p. 16. of Part II. Sir John Davis speaks of the same work, in his book on the Chinese, as being "the only readable Chinese Chronicle;" and he considers that it contains matter as likely to be genuine as the stories detailed in Livy. The style of this work is remarkable for its classic terseness, but it is without the adornment of particles to any great extent. A few are used; but the sequence of clauses, which are generally of four or five characters, suffice to show the connection and the mutual dependence of ideas. Absolute clauses are of frequent occurrence, and there is a general absence of pronouns and particles. Nouns and verbs form the staple material, by the different position of which the grammatical relations are expressed.

Tsiè-shwö (17. a. 6) is the regular phrase for the beginning of a new chapter, and kiö-shwö (17. m. 22) for the resumption of a subject which was previously mentioned. Shaù (17. a. 14), 'few,' here means 'young,' the word niên, 'year,' being understood, or rather the shaù being put for the full phrase shaù-niên (17. k. 1); a part being used for the whole, which is a common rule in Chinese phraseology. This fact should be born in mind,

Translation of the Extract from the Sān-kwŏ chí (1), v. native text, page 17.

The History of the Three Kingdoms.

The story goes on to say, that Chang-jang and Twan-kwei, having with violence laid hands upon the young Emperor and the Prince Chin-liu, rushed blindly through the smoke and fire; and, under cover of the night, fled to the Pi-mang mountain. About the third watch, voices were heard behind them, and a great multitude of horsemen pursued them. In the fore-front was Min-kung, an official of the second class, from Ho-nan; with a loud voice he cried: "Ye obstinate rebels cease to run!" Chang-jang, seeing that the crisis had arrived, immediately plunged into the river and died. The Emperor with the Prince Chin-liu, unconscious of the real state of things, and not daring to speak aloud, hid themselves among the tangled grass on the river's bank. The cavalry dispersed in all directions in the pursuit, without becoming acquainted with the Emperor's whereabouts. But the Emperor and the Prince concealed themselves until the fourth watch, when, as the dew was falling, and they felt the cravings of hunger, they embraced each other and cried; but fearing lest any one should find them out, they stifled their voices in the jungle; then Prince Chin-liu said: "In this place we cannot long beguile the time, we must seek for a means of saving our lives." Thereupon, having girded up their clothes, they crawled up the side of the bank. The ground was all thick with prickly brambles, and, in the darkness, they could not see to walk on the road. Just when they had no other resource, all at once there appeared an innumerable swarm of fireflies streaming past; the light shone splendidly, and they wheeled in their flight only before the Emperor. Prince Chin-liu exclaimed: "This is indeed Heaven assisting us, my brother!" and forthwith they followed the fireflies' light and proceeded until shortly after they saw the road, and travelled upon it until the fifth watch. Then being footsore and not able to proceed, and seeing on a mountain side a heap of grass, the Emperor and the Prince lay down in the midst of it. Now in the front of the heap was a farm, and the farmer was dreaming in the night that two red suns had fallen at the back of his farm. Awaking in a fright he threw on his clothes, and, issuing from the house and scanning every side of it, he saw at the back of the farm, on the heap of grass, a red light shoot upwards to the sky. In a state of trepidation he went to look, and behold, there were the two little fellows on the side of the grass heap. The farmer asked, saying: "You two youngsters, whose sons are you?" The Emperor not daring to reply, Prince Chin-liu, pointing to the Emperor, said: "This is the present Emperor, who, when the revolution of the ten Chang-shi broke out, fled, and with difficulty reached this place. I am the Prince junior, Prince Chin-liu." The farmer, in alarm, bowed twice and said: "I am Tsüi-i, the younger brother of Tsüi-li, the Minister of Instruction during the late reign. Because I saw the ten Chang-shi selling office and envying good men, therefore I withdrew in private to this place." He then supported the Emperor to enter the farm, and on his knees presented wine and food.—But to return to the story:—Min-kung m. 25. kúng kàn-sháng Twán-kweī, nâ-chú wận: "T'iēn-tsz hô-tsaí?" Kweī n. 8. yên ì tsaí pwán-lú siāng-shǐ, pǔ-chī hô wàng, kúng sửí shǎ Twán-n. 23. kweī, hiên t'eû yū mà hiáng-hiá, fān píng sz sán sîn-mǐ. Tsz kì kiǒ o. 9. tǔ shîng yǐ-mà sửî lú chữī-sîn. Ngeù chī Ts'ūī-í chwāng; kién sheù-o. 25. kǐ, wận chī. Kúng shwò tsiâng-sī.

18. Extract from the Sān-kwŏ chí (2), v. native text, page 18.

Ts ui-í yèn Kúng kiến Tí. Kiun-chîn t'úng-k'ŭ. a. 2. Kúng yű: "Kwŏ pŭ-k'ò yĭ-jī wû kiūn, ts'ìng Pí-hiá hwân Tū." Ts'uí-í chwānga. 14. sháng chì-yiù seú-mà yǐ-pǐ; pí yù Tí shîng. Kúng yù Chín-liû Wâng, a. 29. b. 15. kúng-shîng yǐ-mà, lì chwāng ậr hîng. Pǔ-taú sān-lī, Sz-t'û Wângb. 30. yần, T'aí-wei Yâng-piũ, Tsò-kiũn Kiaú-wei,—Shận Yū-k'iûng: C. 12. Yiú-kiūn Kiaú-wei,—Chaú-mîng; Heú-kiūn Kiaú-wei,—Paū-sín; Chūng-kiūn Kiaú-weí,—Yuên-shaú; yĭ-hîng jîn chúng, sú-pĕ jîn-mà; C. 24. tsĭ-chŏ kū-kiá, kiūn-chîn kiaì-k'ŭ. Siēn shí jîn tsiāng Twán-kweī sheùd. 8. kĩ, wàng kīng-sẽ haú-líng líng-hwán haù-mà yữ Tí kĩ Chín-liữ Wâng d. 23. e. g. Tsŭ-tî hwân kīng, siēn shí Lŏ-yâng siaù-âr yaū, yǚ: "Tí e. 24. fī Tí, Wâng fī Wâng; Ts ien shîng wán-k'î tseù Pě-mâng," chí-tsz f. 8. kò yíng k'î ts'ín. Kū-kiá hîng pử taú sú-lī, hwủ-kiến tsīng-k'î pí-ji f. 25. ch'în-tù chē-t'iēn, yǐ-chī jîn-mà taú-laî. Pě-kwān shǐ-sǐ, Tí yǐ tákīng. Yuên-shaú tseú-mà ch'ŭ wán: "Hô-jîn?" Siú-k'î-yìng-lì, yĭg. 12. tsiāng fī-ch'ŭ, lí-shīng wận: "T'iēn-tsż hô-tsaí?" Tí chén-lǐ pǔ-nâng g. 26. yên. Chín-liû Wâng lẽ-mà, hiáng-ts iên ch'i yǔ: "Laî-chè hô-jîn?" h. 11. h. 25. Chố yữ: "Sĩ-liâng Ts'ź-lí, Tûng-chŏ yè." Chín-liû Wâng yữ: "Jù laî paù-kiá yê ? Jù laî kiĕ-kiá yê ?" · Chŏ yíng yǚ: "Tǐ-laî paù-kiá." i. 8. Chín-liû yữ: "Kí-laî paù-kiá, T'iēn-tsz tsaí-tsz, hô-pǔ hiá-mà?" Chŏ i. 24. j. 10. tá kīng hwâng-mâng hiá-mà, paì yū taú-tsó. Chín-liû Wâng ì yên fù-wei Tûng-chŏ. Tsź-tśū-chi-chūng, pîng-wû shĭ-yù; Chŏ gán kîj. 25. k. 10. chī, ì-hwaî fī-lǐ chī í. Shí jǐ hwân kûng, kiến hồ t'aí-heú, kū-kŏ k. 27. t'úng-k'ŭ kièn-tièn kûng chūng pŭ kién liaù ch'uên-kwŏ-yŭ-sì. Tûng-chŏ

because by this rule only can many expressions be understood which defy a literal rendering.

Liên-yé (17. a. 24), lit. 'connecting night,' i. e. 'joining night to day,' becomes equivalent to our adverbial expression, day and night. The translations of titles of officers mentioned in this work cannot, in all cases, be considered satisfactory. The changes which have taken place in the Chinese political world at different periods, and the whimsical alterations in the names of offices, present great difficulties to an English translator.

The use of $y\ddot{u}^a$ (17. c. 26; 17. m. 11) or $y\ddot{u}^b$ (17. e. 30. and h. 27) for $tsai^c$, 'in,' and $ch\bar{\iota}^d$ (17. d. 1. and e. 13) for $t\ddot{\iota}^e$ the genitive particle, with dr^i as the mark of result, are peculiarities of this style, and in which it approaches that of the ancient classics.

Hing-lû (17. f. 22), 'to walk on the road,' is an expression which would mean literally 'to walk the road,' but it must be explained either as we have translated it, 'to walk on the road,' or be understood to make a phrase, or, as it were, one word, meaning 'to travel, to proceed on their way.'

overtook Twan-kwei, seized him, and demanded where the Emperor was; Kwei said that he had missed him when half-way on the road, and that he did not know where he was gone. Kung forthwith killed Twan-kwei, and hung his head from his horse's neck. Having divided his soldiers to scour the country in every direction; he himself mounted a horse, and, following the road, went alone in quest of the fugitives. By chance he arrived at Tsüi-i's farm. I, seeing the head, asked about it. Kung having explained minutely,

Translation of the Extract from the Sān-kwŏ chí (2), v. native text, page 18.

Tsüi-i led Kung to see the Emperor. The Sovereign and his minister both wept bitterly, and Kung said: "The state cannot exist for a day without a prince, I beseech Your Majesty to return to the Capital." Now at Tsüi-i's farm there happened to be a lean steed, which they prepared for the Emperor to mount, while Kung and Prince Chin-liu rode together upon one horse, and so left the farm and proceeded on their way. Before they had gone three short miles, the Minister of Instruction—Wang-yün, the Governor Yang-piau, the Governor of the Army of the left—Chun Yü-kiung, the Governor of the Army of the right—Chau-mang, the Governor of the Army of the rear—Pau-sin, and the Governor of the Army of the centre-Yuen-shau, with a crowd of people and several hundreds of horsemen, met them. The Prince and ministers all wept aloud; and, as a first measure, they sent a man with Twan-kwei's head to the city, with the command to expose it, and to bring back some suitable horses for the Emperor and the Prince to ride. These being obtained, they proceeded towards the city; and thus was fulfilled the former saying of the children in Lo-yang: "The Emperor is not an emperor, the Prince is not a prince; a thousand chariots and a myriad of riders come in from Pi-mang." Before the cavalcade had moved many furlongs, what should they see but a host of people coming to meet them, with banners and flags darkening the sky and marching amid clouds of dust. The officers changed colour, and the Emperor also was exceedingly afraid; but Yuen-shau, putting spurs to his horse, rode forward and demanded who they were. From behind an embroidered flag, a general burst forth and, with a stern voice, asked: "Where is the Emperor?" The Emperor himself, in a state of fear, dared not to speak; but Chin-liu urged his horse forward and shouted: "Who is this coming?" Cho replied: "The overseer of Si-liang,-Tung-cho." Chin-liu said: "Do you come to protect His Majesty, or do you come to seize His Majesty?" Cho replied: "I am come on purpose to protect him." Chinliu then said: "As you are come for that purpose, why do you not descend from your horse?" Cho, in a state of fear and confusion, at once dismounted, and made the salute on the left side of the road. Prince Chin-liu then spoke to him and calmed his troubled mind. Tung-cho from first to last carefully observed his expressions, and secretly cherished the desire of making him Emperor. On the same day they returned to the palace and saw the dowager Empress, and they all wept together; but on searching in the palace they were unable to find the imperial seal. Tung-cho had stationed

l. 11. tūn-pīng ch'îng-waî; meī-jī taí tǐ-kià mà-kiūn, jǐ-chîng hwậng hîng l. 26. kiaī-shì; pĕ-síng hwâng-hwâng pŭ-gān. Chò ch'ŭ-jǐ kūng-tîng liŏ wâ m. 11. kí-tán; Heú-kiūn Kiaú-weí, Paū-sín, laî kién Yuên-shaú yên: "Táng-m. 25. chŏ pǐ-yiù í-sīn sử ch'û chī." Shaú yǔ: "Chaū-t'îng sīn-tíng, wí-k'ō n. 11. kīng-táng." Paū-sín kién Wâng-yùn, yǐ yên k'î-sź. Yùn yǔ: "Tsiè n. 25. yûng shāng-ì." Sĩn-tsź yìn pàn-pú kiūn-pīng t'eû Taî shān k'ú-liaù. o. 10. Tûng-chŏ ch'aū-yiù Hô-tsín hiūng-tí pú-hiá chī pīng, tsín kweī châng-0. 25. ǔ; sī weí Lī-jû yǔ:

19. Extract from the Sān-kwŏ chí (3), v. native text, page 19.

"Wû yŭ fî Tî, li Chín-liû Wâng hô-jû?" Lì-jû yǔ: "Kīn-chaū-t'îng a. 1. wû chù, pŭ-tsiú tsz-shî hîng-sz, chī tsǐ yiù pién ì. Laî-jǐ yū Wận-mîng a. 17. yuên-chũng, chaū-tsĩ pĕ-kwān, yû ì fī-lǐ; yiù pǔ ts'ûng chè, chàn-chī; b. 5. tsǐ weī-k'iûen chī hîng, chíng tsaí kīn-ji." Chŏ hì; tsź-jí tá p'aî yênb. 21. hwüí pién, tsìng kũng-hiāng. Kũng-hiāng kiai kú Tûng-chŏ, shüî C. 7. kàn pử-taú. Cho taí pě-kwān taú-liaù, jên-heú sû-sû taú yuên-mận hiác. 19. mà, taí-kiến jĩ sĩ; tsiù hîng sú siûn, Chŏ kiaú t'îng tsiù chì yŏ; naì d. 6. lí-shīng yữ: "Wû yiù yǐ yên, chúng kwān tsíng-t'íng." Chúng-kwān d. 22. tsě àr. Cho yữ: "Tiēn-tsz wei wán-mîn chī chù, wû weī-ī, pǔ kô-ì e. 5. fũng tsũng-miaú shì-tsǐ; kīn Sháng nó-yŏ, pǔ-jû Chín-liû Wâng, e. 22. ts ung-mîng haù-hiŏ, k ò ching tá-wei, wù yŭ fī Tí lǐ Chín-liû Wâng; f. 6. f. 22. chū tá-chīn ì-wei hô-jû?" Chū kwān t'ing pá, pǔ kàn ch'ǔ shīng. g. 7. Tsó-shàng yǐ jîn t'uī gán, chǐ ch'ŏ lǐ yū yên-ts'iên, tá hū: "Pǔ k'ò! pă k'ò! Jù-shí hô-jîn? kàn fă tá-yû? T'iēn-tsz nai siēn-T'i tĕ tsz, g. 21. $ts^{\epsilon}\bar{u}$ wû $kw\acute{o}$ -shǐ; hô tẽ wáng-î $f\bar{\imath}$ -lí; jù yǔ weí $tsw\grave{a}$ n-nǐ yê?" Chŏ shí h. 10. h. 28. chī, naì Kīng-cheū Ts'ź-lí, Tīng-yuên yè. Chŏ nú ch'ĭ-yṻ: "Sháni. 12. ngò-chè, sāng! nǐ-ngò-chè, sà!" Süí chí peì-kiến yữ chàn Tīng-yuên. i. 27. Shî Lì-jû kiến Tīng-yuên peí-heú yǐ-jîn sāng-tĕ k'í-yû hiēn-gâng,

Very few connective particles are employed in the Sān-kwŏ chi for 'and' or 'with:' yüa is found (17. h. 24); but kiūn-chīn (18. a. 8. and d. 12), 'prince and ministers,' is without any connective: (cf. Part I. Art. 288. 1.)

Pŭ-k'ò yĭ-jĩ wû (18. a. 15), 'cannot be a day without,' seems to be a usual form for the expression 'cannot dispense with.' Compare Chrest. 7. a. 10. et seq. and pŭ-k'ò pŭ-hwüĩ 'you could not dispense with meeting him.' (10. d. 6.)

Observe that $ch \tilde{\iota}^b$ (18. a. 30) is used for, and is similar in meaning to, $ch \tilde{\iota}^c$ only.' Yü d (18. b. 7) is used appropriately for the datival sign 'for,' as it means 'to give,' but a little farther on it is used for the conjunction 'and' (=to cum 'with'), and it is followed by $k ung^c$ (18. b. 15).

Ki' (18. e. 5) is here used for 'and,' because perhaps yii had been just employed for the mark of the dative; and its original meaning suits better the idea of union than does that of yii ('to give').

Lö-yáng (18. e. 17) was an ancient city in Ho-nan, the capital of the ancient monarch Fü-hi.

his troops outside the city, and every day he marched them, heavily armed, through the streets and markets, causing terror and uneasiness to the people. Moreover, he went in and out of the palace without the least concern. This being the state of things, Governor Pau-sin, of the Army of the rear, paid a visit to Yuen-shau, and said: "Tung-chŏ certainly has some sinister intention which he will carry out if he is not removed." Shau replied: "The government is but recently become settled, we must not lightly make any move." Pau-sin went to see Wang-yün, and repeated his thoughts on the state of affairs. Yün replied: "It will be well to hold a consultation about it." Sin himself thereupon led away the troops under his command to the Tai mountain, where they encamped. Tung-chŏ induced also the soldiers under the command of Ho-tsin and his brother to give him their support, and he then privately consulted Li-ju and said:

Translation of the Extract from the Sān-kwŏ chí (3), v. native text, page 19.

"I wish to depose the Emperor and to set up Chin-liu, the Prince. What think you?" Li-ju said: "The present government is without a head, surely this is the time to execute the business, if you delay there will be some change of course. To-morrow, in the Wăn-ming garden, summon all the high officials, and proclaim your intention of causing an abdication; those who do not follow you, kill; for the present is just the time to impress them with your power." Cho was gratified, and the next day he had a great feast, and an assembly, and invited the nobles and gentry. Now the nobles and gentry all feared Tung-chö; who then might dare to stay away? Chö waited for all the officials to arrive, and afterwards leisurely riding up to the gate, he dismounted, and came in to dinner, wearing his sword. When the wine had gone round several times, Cho bade them to cease drinking, and to stop the music, and then in a stern tone he said: "I have a word to say, let all the officers present quietly listen." Then they all inclined the ear, while Cho said: "The Emperor is the lord of all people, if he has not a dignified appearance he cannot perform the rites in the temple of ancestors and to the gods of the land. his present majesty is timid and weakly, not like the Prince Chin-liu, who is intelligent and fond of learning, and may well succeed to the great throne. I wish therefore to depose the Emperor and to set up Chin-liu, the Prince, what do you think of it, my lords?" All the ministers, when they had heard it, were afraid to utter a word. But among those who were seated was a man who arose, pushed away the table, and standing erect before the assembly, with a loud voice said: "It cannot be! It cannot be! Who are you that you should dare to utter such great words? The Emperor is the son of the late Emperor's lawful queen. From the first he has been without fault or error, why take traitorous measures to dethrone him? Do you wish to become a usurper and a rebel?" Cho beheld him, and saw that it was the Ts'z-li of King-cheu, -Ting-yuen by name. Cho in a rage shouted out: "Those that obey me, live! those that are adverse, die!" Forthwith grasping the sword at his girdle he wanted to destroy Ting-yuen, when Li-ju, on seeing behind Ting-yuen's

weī-fūng pīn-pīn, sheù chǐ fāng-t'iēn hwā kǐ, nú mǔ ậr shí. Lī-jû kǐ j. 13. tsín yữ: "Kīn jĩ yìn yèn chĩ chú, pữ k'ò t'ân kwŏ-chíng, laî-jĩ hiáng j. 30. k. 16. Tū-t'âng kūng-lán." Wí chỉ chúng-jîn kiai kiuén Tīng-yuên shángk. 29. mà ậr k'ú. Chỗ wận pẽ-kwān yû: "Wû sò-yên hỗ kũng-taú feù?" Lû-chǐ yữ: "Mîng kũng chā ì; sĩ T'aí-ki pǔ mîng, I-yûn fáng l. 14. chī yū T'ûng-kwān; Ch'āng-yǐ wâng tāng wei, fāng ậr shǐ tsǐ ji, tsaú l. 29. m. 14. ŏ sān shǐ yû t'iaû; kú Hŏ-kwāng kaū T'aí-miaú ệr fī chī. Kīn-sháng m. 30. süī yiú, tsūng-mîng jîn-chí, pîng-wû fān haù kwó-shǐ; kūng naì waí n. 15. kiún Ts´ź-lī, sú wí tsʿān yù kwŏ chíng yiú wû I-Hŏ chī tú tsaî. k'ò kiảng chữ fĩ-lĩ chĩ sá? Shíng-jîn yûn yiù I-yün chĩ chí, tsẽ k'ò 0. 2. 0. 19. wû I-yûn chī chí tsĕ tswàn yè." Chŏ tá nú pă *

20. Extract from the Sān-kwŏ chí (4), v. native text, page 20.

kiến hiáng-ts iền yữ shà chỉ; I-lâng, P'âng-pĩ kiến yữ: "Lû а. т. Sháng-shū haì nữì jîn wáng, kīn siēn haí chĩ k'ùng t'iēn-hiá chín-pû." a. 14. Cho naì chì; Sī-t'a Wâng-yùn yữ: "Tī-lí chī số pữ k'ò tsiù-heu a. 29. siāng-sháng, līng-jǐ tsaí-ì." Yū-shí pĕ-kwān kiaī sán. Chŏ gān-kién b. 16. lǐ yū yuên-mận. Hwữ-kiến yǐ jîn yǒ mà ch'î kǐ, yū yuên-mận waí с. т. C. 17. wàng-laî. Chờ wặn Lì-jû: "Tsz hô jîn yè?" Jû yǔ: "Tsz Tīngd. 1. yuên ´í-âr, síng, Lù; mîng, pū, tsź, Tūng-siēn chè yè. Chù-kūng tsièsū pǐ chī." Cho naì jǐ yuên ts iên-pǐ. Ts z jǐ jǐ paú Tīng-yuên yìnd. 16. kiūn chîng-wai nǐ-chén. Chŏ nú yìn-kiūn t'ûng Lì-jû ch'ŭ-yîng; e. 2. liàng-chîn tüí yuên, chĕ kiến Lù-pū, tìng sŭ-fà kīn-kwān, p'ī pĕ-hwā е. 16. chén-p'aû hwán t'âng-maû k'aì-kiă, kí sz-lwân paû-taí, tsúng mà tí kǐ, f. 2. sửî Tīng Kiến-yâng, ch'ữ taú chĩn tsiên. Kiến-yâng chì Chỗ má yữ: f. 18. "Kwŏ-kiā pǔ hīng, yēn-hwàn lûng-kiuên, ì-chí wán-mîn t'û-t'án. g. 2. g. 16. Àr wû chǐ-tsān chǐ kūng; yên kàn wâng-yên fī-lǐ, yǔ lwán chaū-

 $Pa\dot{u}$ - $ki\acute{a}$ (18. i. 22) 'to protect His Majesty.' Here $ki\acute{a}$, 'an imperial carriage,' is employed, by metonomy, for royalty itself: (cf. Part I. Art. 182.)

Hing kiaī-shì (18. l. 25), 'to walk the streets and markets,' is a use of the verb hing, already referred to in the case of hing-la 'to proceed on the way,—to travel:' (cf. 18. f. 22.) Kiến (18. m. 20) 'to see,' in the sense of 'have an interview with,' is very classical: (cf. Chrest. 4. g. 8. and often in the Sz-shū.) Yên (18. m. 23) with the signification 'to speak, to deliberate,' is a mark of classic style, and is different from wei (18. o. 27), which means simply 'to tell:' i-sin (18. m. 28), lit. 'another heart,' or a 'different mind' from that which he manifested, here means, 'sinister design.' Wi-k'ò (18. n. 9), 'cannot as yet,' is a very elegant expression: indeed the whole reply of Shau is worthy of careful notice.

The rapid transition from the narrative of Pau-sin's interviews with Yuen-shau and Wang-yūn to his placing himself at the head of his troops is a characteristic of the style of the Sān-kwŏ.

Tsia (19. a. 20) is used here in an uncommon sense, with the negative pa before it; it assimilates in meaning to ja 'as.' The whole expression in this passage means, 'There is no time like the present for action.'

* Cho tá nú pà a 'Cho in a great rage drew his sword.' These characters were inadvertently omitted in the native text.

back a man of great ability, of a bold and upright figure and a dignified deportment, holding in his hand a long ornamented spear, and looking round with earnest eyes, came forward and said: "To-day this is the place of feasting, we cannot parley about the affairs of state; to-morrow in the Imperial Hall we may publicly discuss." Soon afterwards all present exhorted Ting-yuen to mount his horse and go. But Cho asked the officers, saying: "Is that which I have said in accordance with justice or not?" Lu-chi replied: "Your Excellency is in error; in ancient times the Emperor T'aikiā was of weak mind, and I-yun dismissed him to Tang-kung; and when the Prince Chang-yi ascended the throne, and in twenty-seven days did more than thirty acts of wickedness, Hö-kwang accused him in the Great Temple and deposed him. But although the present Emperor is young, he is intelligent, humane, and prudent, and he is without the least fault of any kind; and you, my lord, are the Ts'z-li of a foreign state, and have hitherto had no concern in this government, moreover you have not the great talents of I and $H\hat{o}$; how then can you take on yourself the business of deposing and raising to the throne? A sacred sage once said: 'Those who have the mind of I-yun may act as he did; those who have not his mind will act like rebels."

Translation of the Extract from the Sān-kwö chí (4), v. native text, page 20.

Cho was enraged, and, grasping his sword, he sprang forward wishing to kill Chi; but the councillor P'ang-pi restrained him, and said: "President Lü is looked up to by all the people, and if you should begin by injuring him, it is to be feared that there will be a commotion in the empire." Cho then stopped, and the Minister of Instruction, Wang-yün, said: "It is not convenient to discuss public affairs after wine, another day we will talk about it." Upon this all the ministers departed. Now as Cho was leaning on his sword, standing at the entrance to the garden, he chanced to see a mounted horseman prancing up and down in front of the place and flourishing his lance. asked Li-ju who the man was. Ju replied: "He is Ting-yuen's illegitimate son, his surname is $L\ddot{u}$, his name is Pu, and his title is Fung-sien, your lordship should avoid him." Cho then re-entered the garden, and so got out of the way. The next day it was reported that Ting-yuen was at the head of troops outside the city and challenging to battle. Cho in a rage went forth, accompanied by Li-ju, leading troops to meet him. The two lines in semicircles stood opposite to each other, and there was Lü-pu, having a golden band round his hair, and having on a military cloak beautifully embroidered, armour also of the T^{ϵ} and period, and a girdle wrought with lions and gems. He spurred his horse, raised his lance, and following Ting Kien-yang, came out to the front of the line. Kien-yang pointed to Cho, and upbraided him, saying: "The government is in misfortune, and the eunuchs are managing affairs to the ruin and desolation of the people and the country. While you, who have not an atom of merit, are desirous of creating rebellion. How dare you traitorously attempt to cause an abdication?" Cho had not time to reply

t'ing." Tûng-chŏ wi-ki hwiiî-yên, Lù-pū fī-mà shă-kwó-laî. h. 1. chŏ hwâng-tseù. Kién-yâng sử kiữn yèn shă. Cho ping tá-paí, tüí h. 16. sān-shǐ yû lī hiá-chaí. Tsứ chũng sháng-í. Cho yữ: "Wù kwán Lùh. 30. pū fī ch'ang-jîn yè. Wù, jŏ tĕ tsà-jîn, hô lú t'iēn-hiá tsaī?" Ch'āng i. 15. ts iên yǐ-jîn ch' i yǐ: "Chù-kūng wǐ yiū, meū yù Lù-pū t'ûng hiáng, j. 1. chī k'î-yùng ậr wû-meū, kién-lì wáng-í; meū p'îng sắn-tsān pǔ-lánј. 16. chī-shǐ shườ, Lữ-pũ kùng-sheù laî kiáng: k'ò hû?" Chŏ tá-hì, kwān k. 2. k'î jîn nai Hù-fạn Chung-làng tsiang, Lì-sư yè. Chờ yữ: "Jù tsiang k. 17. hô-ì shwŏ chī?" Sử yữ: "Meū wán Chữ-kũng yiù mîng-mà yĭ-pĭ, haú l. 2. $y\ddot{u}$: "Chǐ-t'ú," jǐ-hîng ts iēn $l\bar{\imath}$; $s\ddot{\bar{u}}$ tĕ tsz-mà, tsaí yúng kīn-ch $\bar{\bar{u}}$, i-lì kǐ k'î l. 18. sīn; meū kāng tsín shwŏ-ts'z, Lù-pū pǐ fân Tīng-yuên, laî t'eû Chùm. 7. m. 22. kūng ì." Cho wán Lì-jû yǔ: "Tsz-yên kô hû?" Jû yǔ: "Chù-kūng yŭ-ts'ù t'iēn-hiá, hô-sĭ yĭ-mà?" Chŏ hiēn-jên yù-chī, kāng yù hwûngn. 7. kīn yĭ-ts'iēn-liàng, mîng-chū sú shĭ-kŏ, yŭ-taí yĭ-t'iaû. Lì-sŭ ts'î-liaù n. 23. lì-wă, t'eû Lù-pā chaí laî fă-lú, kiūn-jîn weî-chú. Să yă: "K'ò să-0. 10. paú Lù Tsiāng-kiūn." 0. 27.

21. Selections from Æsop's Fables, translated (1), v. native text, page 21.

a. 2. Sŭ-mŭ kìng-yû.

Sĩ yiù weî fú-chè, ngó-píng tsaí ch wâng tsiāng-tsử, chúng-tsż hwân a. 7. t'îng fān-fū, k'î-fú yǔ: "Wù yiù yĭ-wŭ, jù-tàng shí chī; süí chǐ mǔa. 21. t'iaû yĭ-sŭ, líng k'î-tsz chĕ chī, shí nâng-twán feù ?" Chúng-tsz jû-míng b. 8. b. 24. chǐ-chī, pǔ nâng-twán. Fú hwüí chī yǔ: "Jû tsiè chǔ-t iaû ch'eū-ch'ǔ, ts ź-tí fān-chĕ, shí nậng-twán feù ?" Yū-shí mŏ-pŭ süî-sheù ậr twán. c. 9. Fú yǔ: "Ngò sà chī heú, jù-tàng pǔ-î fān-lî; hŏ, tsǐ pǔ sheú jîn-k̄ī, C. 25. $f\bar{a}n$, tsǐ í $y\bar{u}$ chě-twán. Ts \hat{z} -m \check{u} ts \check{u} \hat{i} -we \hat{i} chíng \hat{i} ." $S\check{u}$ - $y\hat{u}$ $y\hat{u}$ n: "Shận d. 30. ch'ì siāng-î;—liên, tsi wán wû yĭ-shi; jŏ fān-chī, shận wâng, tsi chī hân, wû-yiù pŭ-shǐ yè." Shín chī! Jû ì yĭ-kwŏ ậr lạn; kŏ-kú yǐ-fāngе. 16. chè, siēn yiù pǔ-paí, fán pǔ-jû hŏ-lǐ siāng-liên chī weî meí yè. f. 4.

g. 2. Paú gặn shū.

g. 6. Sz̄-tsz̀ shŭ-shwüí yū̄ kiaū-waí, siaù-shū̄ tsaí-pâng wân-t'iaú, kīng-

Kiaû (19. d. 16), commonly 'to teach,' is here used, like kiaũ a 'to call,' for 'to command, to bid;' and the next words, t'îng-tsiù chì-yŏ, which are the object of this kiaû, are exactly in accordance with the use of the figure metonomy in the construction of phrases; e. g. tsiù, 'wine,' is here put for 'drinking the wine.' The whole phrase must be taken as the object of kiaû, in one expression. (Cf. Part I. Art. 211.)

Observe the use of the qualifying expression li-shing (19. d. 22), 'stern voice,' before the verb yü 'to say,' meaning 'in a stern tone he said,' or 'he said sternly.' A language like the Chinese, which is wanting in marks for the different cases, admits of great variety in translation without inaccuracy, but good judgment is requisite to an idiomatic version from or into this language. The words of Tung-chö (19. d. 25) exemplify the remarkable terseness of the style of the San-kwö; here we have literally, 'I have one word, all officers quietly listen,'—'all officers incline ear.' (See the translation on page 63.)

before Lü-pu, at a flying speed, darted across. Cho at once withdrew in a state of trepidation, but Kien-yang followed him with his troops also in pursuit, and Cho's soldiers were completely routed. After retreating for about thirty furlougs, they threw up a stockade, and a council of war was held. Cho said: "I perceive that Lü-pu is no ordinary man; if I could obtain him, what need should I have to be anxious about the empire?" A man then came out and said: "My lord, be not concerned, I am a fellow-townsman of Lü-pu,— I know that he is brave, but without much sense, he looks at gain and forgets right principles; I can, with a very small amount of fine talking, cause $L\ddot{u}$ -pu to come and pay his respects to you. Will you allow it?" Cho was much pleased, and observed that the man was the veteran adjutant-general Li-seu. said: "But how will you speak to him?" Seu replied: "I have heard that your lordship has a celebrated horse, named the 'Purple-hare,' which can go a thousand furlongs a day, I must have this horse, and with gold and pearls obtain possession of his heart; and I will so manage to address him that he shall turn against Ting-yuen and come over to your lordship." Cho asked Li-ju, saying: "Will this do?" Ju replied: "Your lordship wishes to take the empire, why should you have any concern for a horse?" Cho then gladly gave it up, together with gold, a thousand ounces, several tens of bright pearls, and a jewelled girdle. Li-seu took the presents to give to Lü-pu in the entrenched camp. While hiding himself in the road, the soldiers surrounded him, but Seu said: "I have a message to general Lü-pu."

Translation of the Selections from Æsop's Fables (1), v. native text, page 21.

The comparison of the bundle of wood.

Once upon a time there was a father laid in sickness upon a bed, and, being about to die, all his sons stood around to hear his dying commands. father said: "I have something which I wish you to attempt," and forthwith he threw down a bundle of sticks, bidding his sons to break them, and to try whether they could snap them in two or not? All his sons did as they were bidden, but they were unable to break them in two. The father then instructed them, and said: "Do you now pull out each stick! and snapping them one after the other, try if you can break each in two or not?" Upon doing this, there was not one which remained unbroken. The father said: "After my death you should not separate! If you are united, you will not be insulted by others; if you divide, then it will be easy to break and disperse you, just as this bundle of sticks shows. The proverb says: 'When the lips and teeth are alike united, not one in ten thousand will be lost; but separate them, and then the lips are dead and the teeth grow cold, and every thing is lost.' Pay attention to this! Like as in a kingdom where each man considers his own house alone; there are few who are not destroyed; but there is nothing so desirable as united strength!"

The rat that returned a kindness.

While a lion was soundly sleeping in a wild region, a little rat came playing near him. The lion having awoke in a fright began to play with him.

sīng ậr hí-chī. Sī sửi ì chaữ teū-chī, shữ pǔ-nâng tử, gaî-mīng chaữg. 20. hiá. Sĩ niên siaù shữ kữ-kữ chĩ t'ì, shă chĩ wứ-yĩ, pǔ-jứ shè-chĩ. Shữ h. 7. h. 25. tě-mièn, heú yú sz-tsz wû-t'eû lǐ-chè chī wàng, shí pŭ-nâng tử. nién chaū-hiá chī gān, süí tsiāng wàng yaù-p'ó, sz-tsz chì tĕ-tŭ-shīn. i. 12. Jû shi sò-wei: "Shi-ár t'iaû liâng, pŭ-chī hô t'iaû tĕ-li!" Yiú yûn: i. 28. "Tě fáng-sheù-shî, sũ fáng-sheù; tě jaû-jîn-chū, tsiè jaû-jîn; tsǐ wǔ j. 14. kīng-shí jîn siaù. Ch'îng k'ùng kin-ji chī siaù-jîn, shí tsiāng-laî chī j. 30. k. 15. gān-jîn, yǐ wi-k'ò tíng yè?"

l. 2. Chē-fū k'iû Fŭ.

1. 7. Yĩ-jĩ chẽ-fũ tsiãng chẽ-lận hiện yũ siaù-kṣṇg, pǔ-nâng k²i. Chẽ-fũ
1. 23. k²iû kiú yũ A-mi-to Fǔ. Fǔ kò kiáng-lín wán yǔ: "Nì yiù hô-sź
m. 10. siāng-k²iû?" Fũ yǔ: "Ngò chẽ lờ-kṣṇg k²iũ Fǔ-lĩ pă-kiú." Fǔ yǔ:
m. 25. "Jù tāng kiēn kāng k²î chē, ậr piēn k²î mà; tsź-jên tāng-chˇu tsż kṣṇg,
n. 11. jŏ-jù chüî sheù ậr taí, ngò yǐ wû-nâng weî ì." Jû shí-jîn, kǐ-shî k²iû
n. 29. Fǔ, yǐ tāng-siēn tsín k²i-lǐ, naì k'ò. Jín àr súng Fǔ wán-shīng, pǔ-jû
0. 16. tsź-hîng mièn-lǐ.

22. Selections from Æsop's Fables, translated (2), v. native text, page 22.

a. 2. Lâng twán yâng-gán.

a. 7. Kù yiù hiững-kiuèn, kú-pìn yữ làng, weí yâng fú-ĩ, kŭ-liâng sú-hŏ, tsũng pũ-k'àng hwân, k'iû lâng tsŏ-chù. Lâng tsĭ ch'ũ-ch'aī, tsiãng a. 23. yâng nâ-hwŏ, sín yū: "Àr k'ién meù-kiuèn kŭ-liâng; jǐ-kiù pŭb. 6. hwân, shí hô taú-lì?" Yâng yữ: "Pîng-wû tsz-sź, naì kw āng-kiuèn b. 20. wû-kaú yè." Lâng wặn kiuên yǔ: "Yâng pǔ-k'àng chaū, àr yiù c. 4. pîng-kû feù?" Kiuèn yǔ: "Yīng, kiŭ, kiaī k'ò tsŏ-chíng." Lâng tsĭ C. 17. chuên-laî yīng, kiŭ, mién-mién siāng-chǐ. Yīng, kiŭ, chʿīng chīn-sź! C. 30. yâng k'ién kiuèn liâng, ngò-tàng mặ-ki; pîng-fī wû-kaú, ki gān tsiāng d. 13. yâng, gán-liữ chí tsửi." Lâng tửi yâng yữ: "Hiến yiù tĩ-chíng, àr d. 28. sháng laí hû?" süí shă-chī. Yū-shí kaú-chī-kiuèn, yù shìn-sź-chī e. 12.

Shì-tsǐ (19. e. 25) should be shè-tsǐ 'the gods of the land and the grain,' which are worshipped by the Emperor and his suite, in person, on particular occasions. Tsūng-miaū (19. e. 23) is the 'Temple of Ancestors,' which also receives a periodical visit from the Emperor.

Sháng (19. e. 28) 'upper' for 'superior,' and is here put for the Emperor, as the highest individual of all the superior classes.

Tsüng-ming (19. f. 6), 'intelligent-bright,' is here put as an attribute to Chin-liû, but after instead of before it, and where we should use a relative clause. It may be looked upon as an apposition to the previous word, and its position is worthy of attention.

Ting-på (19. g. 1) 'having heard,' in which på, 'to cease,' gives the force of the perfect tense in European tongues: (cf. Part I. Art. 197.) Tsō-shāng (19. g. 7) 'among those sitting;' shāng 'upon, upper,' stands for several ideas in different constructions. Compare tién-shāng (8. b. 4) 'at the inn,' as we say, "on 'Change" for "at the Exchange."

Tĕ-tsz (19. h. 8) means the legitimate son of the Emperor, the son of the principal wife,—the Queen, who is called Ching-ship.

The lion with his paw covered him, so that the rat, being unable to escape, cried piteously from beneath the claws. The lion bethought himself that the rat had a very small body, and that if he killed him no profit would accrue, so he deemed it best to let him go. The rat was therefore let off, but on another occasion he met with the lion caught by mistake in the hunter's net, and with all his strength he could not get out. The rat remembered the favour while under the claws, and at once set about gnawing the net through with his teeth, and at last he gave the lion his liberty. Just as in the world we say: "Of twelve beams of wood, we know not which is the strongest." And again they say: "When you can deliver any one, you should do so; when you can spare any one, you should spare, and on no account look upon others as insignificant. Lest indeed the mean man of to-day should be our benefactor to-morrow,—who knows?"

The coachman praying to Fŭ (Buddha for Hercules).

One day a coachman got his carriage wheel sunk into a little pit and was unable to raise it out, so he begged for assistance from $Amida\ Buddha$, who really descended and enquired, saying: "What do you want?" The man said: "My carriage has fallen into this pit, and I pray for the power of Buddha to pull it out." Buddha replied: "You ought with your shoulder to raise the vehicle, and lash your horses, then assuredly it will arise from this pit; but if you let your hands hang down and wait, even I shall be powerless to help you." Thus it is in the world; when affairs are urgent, men pray to $F\ddot{u}$; but they ought first to exhaust all their energy, and then they would be able to manage them. For if you call on $F\ddot{u}$ ten thousand times, it will not be so good as using your own exertions.

Translation of the Selections from Æsop's Fables (2), v. native text, page 22.

The sentence of the wolf in the suit about the sheep.

In former times there was a savage dog, who petitioned a wolf, saying that a sheep owed him several measures of corn, and that he would on no account pay, and he begged the wolf to act as arbiter. The wolf sent out a bailiff to seize the sheep, and having caught him, he examined him, saying: "You have owed a certain dog some corn for a good while, and have not paid, what sort of principle is that?" The sheep replied: "It is no such thing, but that mad dog has accused falsely." The wolf asked the dog, saying: "The sheep is unwilling to confess, have you any proof against him?" The dog replied: "The eagle and the kite can both bear witness." The wolf then summoned the eagle and the kite to appear before his face and to testify. They declared that it was all true; that the sheep owed the dog the provision, "We have seen it," said they, "and he is not falsely accused, we beg you graciously to take the sheep and deal with him as the law directs to cure him of this crime." The wolf then took the sheep and said: "Now we have strong proof, do you still persist?" and forthwith killed him. Thereupon the dog which had at first accused him, with the wolf which had adjudged the affair, together

- e. 28. lâng-kwān, pîng kān-chíng-chī yīng-kiŭ, (shê-hiĕ yĭ-wō,) kúng fạn k'î
- f. 13. yang. Jû shi-jîn, jŏ yiù tsz-ts'aî, meī chaú hwậng-hó! yiú; yű t'ān
- f. 28. lầng chĩ kwān, yuên-kaú jû kiuèn, kān-chíng jû yīng-kiŭ; tsĩ pǔ-pĩ
- g. 13. wáng k'î pìng-kūng twán-sz ì! Yén yûn: "Siáng yiù ch'ì, fận k'î
- g. 27. shīn." K'ì pǔ hû?
- h. 2. Tŭ-shê yaù ts'ó.
- h. 7. Sĩ yiù tử-shê, yuên-jĩ tǐ-p'ú; yú wư, tsĩ yaù; shĩ yiù lì-ts'ó tsaí-ts'iên;
- h. 25. shê tsĩ chiến ậr yaù-chĩ. Kieù chữ tsố chi, hữ-tĩ kô-kiến, ì-wei yaù
- i. 12. shāng tsè-ts'ó, fǔ tsaí yaù-chī. Ts'ó yǔ: "Jù sīn kiuèn-tǔ, pǔ-nâng
- i. 27. haí jîn, fàn haí tsź-kì." Jû shí yiù lâng-sīn-chè, châng tsaí gán-lì, ì
- j. 14. yên-yû hwüì-jîn, ậr pĭ-chī shǐ tsź hwüì. Shín chī!
- k. 2. Fù-t'eû k'iû pîng.
- k. 7. Sĩ yiù fù-t'eû, sũ jữi ậr wû-yúng, tsź-sź pǐ-tĕ yĭ-píng, fāng k'ò
- k. 24. kiến-yúng yữ-shí; naì kĩ kî shú yữ: "Siễn-sāng, tsź ngò yĭ-mŭ, pŭ-
- l. 10. kwó kìn-wei yǐ-ping tsử ì ; t'ā-jǐ tsź-tāng t'û-paú." K'î shứ tsź-kú chī-kō
- l. 29. fân-shíng; "Hô-sĩ yĩ-píng?" K'aí-jên yù-chĩ. Fù tẽ k'î píng; sò-yiù
- m. 15. shú-lîn, tsín p'ì fă-k'ú! Hộ k'î shú-chĩ yử tsaī! Jư shí-jîn sở weí:
- n. 2. "Tsù hù t'iēn yĭ." Yiú yŵn: "Tí-taū, kĭ-míng;" shí yè! Fûn-jîn
- n. 16. pǐ-sū kờ sheù k'î fān tsĩ, wừ chǐ-ts án yữ jîn, ch'îng-k'ùng (yiù jû fù
- píng), tsĭ hwaí chī wàn ì.
- 23. Official Papers (Lin's Letter to Queen Victoria (1)), v. native text, page 23.
- a. b. 1. Kīn-ch'aī, Tá-chîn, Pīng-pú Sháng-shū, Liàng-Hû Tsūng-tǔ, Lîn,
- a. 17. Pīng-pú Sháng-shū, Liàng-Kwâng Tsūng-tù, Tang,
- b. 17. Pīng-pú Shí-làng Kwâng-tūng Siùn-fù, I,
- c. 1. hwüí-t'ûng chaú-hwüí Yīng-kĭ-lì kwŏ wûng, weî líng-kín ā-piēn
- c. 15. yēn-sz; chaú-tĕ t'iēn-taú wû-sz pŭ-yûng haí-jîn, ì lì kì; jîn-ts'îng

Kwó-shī (19. h. 12) is a union of two verbs, 'to pass over' and 'to fail,' put for 'transgression' or 'fault.' (Cf. Part I. Art. 101.)

Hiáng (19. k. 15), 'towards,' is used here for 'at:' (cf. Part I. Art. 407. 4.) Kūng (19. k. 18) here means 'public,' as often; e. g. kūng-wūn (24. d. 15) 'public despatch,' but in kūng-hiāng (19. c. 10) it means 'nobles,' and kūng-taū (19. l. 11) means 'just,' because justice is founded on the common rights of mankind. Again, kūng (19. n. 12) is 'you, my lord:' (cf. 20. d. 13, 14.) Tsiù-heū (20. b. 14) 'after wine.' Here tsiù, 'wine,' is put for 'drinking wine.'

Observe the ellipsis of the substantive verb in tsz hô jîn yê (20. c. 23-26).

The description given of the dress of great men and heroes in Chinese romances is generally elaborate, as is that of $L\ddot{u}$ - $p\ddot{u}$ (20. e. 24—f. 13), who played an important part in this story of the San- $kw\breve{o}$.

Fi-mà (20. h. 10), lit. 'flying-horse,' is an example of the use of the verb to qualify the noun; but in such cases the qualifying verb or participle has often to be translated by an adverbial expression; and here we must construe, 'his horse going at full speed,' Shǎ (20. h. 12), 'to kill,' is here used to intensify the expression, to imply that he darted across the intermediate space. The use of $hi\acute{a}$ (20. i. 4) 'down,' or 'lower,' for 'throwing up' a stockado, or 'entrenching themselves,' is very idiomatic. In fact $sh\acute{a}ng$ and $hi\acute{a}$, as will

with the false witnesses,—the eagle and the kite (a nest of birds of the same feather),—divided the sheep among themselves. Thus it is in the world, if a man possess wealth, it will daily bring crosses and woes upon him, and should he cross the path of a magistrate who is greedy like the wolf, and an accuser like the dog, and false witnesses like the eagle and the kite, then he must not expect to have it decided according to any justice in the case. So the proverb says: "The elephant has tusks of ivory, and we burn his body for them, is it not so?"

The venomous snake bites the file.

Once upon a time a venomous snake wound itself into a blacksmith's shop, and every thing which fell in its way it gnawed. Now it happened that a sharp file came in its way, so the snake coiled itself round it and began to gnaw it, but his mouth suddenly coming in contact with the sharp teeth of the file, drops of blood were to be seen; he thereupon thought that these were from the wounds inflicted on the file, so he went on gnawing it. But the file said: "Your heart is very venomous, you are not able to hurt others, but, on the contrary, you may injure yourself."

Just so in this world, those who have the hearts of wolves are constantly in secret slandering others, but they unwittingly defame themselves. Beware of such!

The axe-head begs for a handle.

There was once an axe-head, which, although sharp, was useless, so he thought within himself that he must obtain a handle, and be useful in the world. Then he besought a tree, saying: "Sir, give me a piece of wood, only sufficient to make a handle, and some other day I will, as in duty bound, reward you." The tree on seeing his branches so abundant, thought, 'Why should I grudge a handle?' And so generously gave him one. The axe now having obtained a handle, cut down completely all the trees which were in the forest. What stupidity it was in this tree! So the men of the world have the saying: "Help the tiger by adding wings." Also they say: "Present a knife and beg your life;" and so it is. Let every one keep his own share and on no account give to others, lest truly (as in the case of the axe handle) he may repent of it too late!

Translation of Official Papers (Lin's Letter to Queen Victoria (1)), v. native text, page 23.

Imperial Commissioner Lin, a Minister of State, a President of the Board of War, Governor-General of the Two Hu (Hu-nan and Hu-pĕ provinces),

President Tang, of the Board of War, Governor-General of the Two Kwang (Kwang-tung and Kwang-sī provinces), and

Vice-President I, of the Board of War, and Lieutenant-Governor of Kwangtung,

unite in making a communication to the Ruler of the English nation, in order to cause the prohibition of the opium traffic; showing that Providence does not allow any private arrangements soever to be injurious, so that they

pŭ-yuèn. Shu fī wú-sha âr haú-sāng? Kwei-kwŏ, siū tsai chûng-yâng d. 2. d. 17. ár-wán lī waí; âr t'ûng tsờ t'iēn-taú, t'ûng tsờ jîn-ts'îng, wí-yiù pǔmîng, yū sāng-sz lì-hai chè yè. Ngò t'iēn-chaū sz-haì wei kiā; tá е. з. e. 19. Hwâng-tí, jû t'iēn chī jîn, wû-sò-pŭ-feú, ûr hiâ-hwâng tsữ-yǐ, yǐ tsaí pîngsāng, pĭng-yŭ chī chūng. Kwông-tūng, tsź k'aī haì-kín ì-laî, liû-t'ūng f. 7. meú-yǐ; fân Nüí-tí mîn-jîn, yữ waí-laî fān-ch uên siāng-ān, yū lŏ-lì chè, f. 22. yiù sú-shǐ niên yū-tsz̄ ì. Tsiè yū̄ tá-hwâng, ch'â-yĕ, hû-sz̄, tàng-lūí, g. 10. kiaī Chūng-kwŏ paù-kweí chī ch'ān; waí-kwŏ jŏ pŭ-tĕ tsz, tsĭ wû ì-weí g. 27. míng; ậr t'iēn-chaū yĭ-shí t'ûng jîn, hù k'î fán-maí ch'ŭ-yâng, tsử pử h. 14. kín-sǐ, wû-fī t'iiī-sź wai fǔ ì t'iēn-tí chī sīn wei sīn yè. Naì yiù yǐ h. 30. chúng kān î chí wei ā-piēn kiă-tai fán-mai, yiù-hwŏ yû-mîn, ì hai k'î i. 19. shīn, ậr meû k'î lì, ts iên hì-shi chè. Sháng shaù kín tsi hú-siāng j. 7. ch uên jèn liû-tŭ jĭ-shīn tsaí chūng yuên, fú shú fân ch ang, suī tsaīj. 22. tsž-tạng yű-mîn t'ān-k'eù-fŭ, ậr ts'iâng k'î sāng, yĭ shŭ nĭ yiû-tsź ts'ù k. 7. k. 24. hô-pǐ wei gai-sǐ yè jên ì. Tá-ts ing yǐ-t úng chī t iēn-hiá, wú tsaí l. 11. twān fūng-sử ì chíng jîn-sĩn, k'ì-k'àng shí haì-nüí sāng-lîng kān-sĩn l. 27. chîn-tŭ, shí-ì hiện tsiāng Nüí-tí fán-maí ā-piēn, pîng hǐ-shǐ chī jîn, yǐm. 15. t'ì yên-hîng chí tsüí yûng kín liû ch'uên; weî-sź tsż-tạng tŭ-wŭ hí $kwei-kwŏ sõ-shŭ, kŏ-pú hiă-nüi kwei-yi kān-jîn s<math>\bar{z}$ -hîng tsaú-tsŏ; $ts\acute{z}-f\bar{\imath}$ n. I. n. 19. kwei-kwŏ wâng, líng k'î chi-tsaú tsż-wŭ pîng-fī chū-kwŏ kiaī jên-yiú wán kweí-kwö yǐ-pữ chàn mîn-jîn hĩ-shǐ fán-chè, pǐ ch'îng: tsź hí chī 0. 5. 0. 22. k'î haî-jîn, kû tĭ-weî chi lí-kín.

have been seen, enter into many pure Chinese idioms. Wǔ (20. j. 8) 'not, do not,' being employed for pǔ-yaúa, is one of the characteristics of the terse style of this work. Tūng-hiang (20. j. 14), 'of the same village,' is another example of the predicate being of pregnant meaning, and like the attribute only being placed after the noun which it qualifies. This form is common in the San-kwǒ. We have chǒ tá-hì (20. k. 13).

Mark hô-ì (20. l. 2) 'by what means?' and compare this use of ì with ì-wei hô-jû? (19. f. 25) 'how do you consider this?' or 'what do you think of it?' (cf. 4. j. 20. and 4. e. 1.) ì often has the force of the final particle 'that, to the end that,' or 'for the purpose of:' (cf. 19. e. 21; 23. l. 14; and Part I. Art. 482.)

 $F\check{u}$ - $l\acute{u}$ (20. 0. 17) 'to hide on the road.' In this expression the noun $l\acute{u}$ follows the verb 'to hide' directly, without any particle to show the relation; but the sense of the passage compels the above rendering, just as in hing- $l\acute{u}$ above (17. f. 22). This form is frequent. We have a case in the next page; $ng\acute{e}$ -ping (21. a. 12) 'lying in sickness.'

Pages 21 and 22 of the native text contain extracts from a work entitled: "Esop's Fables written in Chinese by the learned Mun Mooy Seen-shang, and compiled in their present form (with a free and literal translation) by his pupil, Sloth," an allusion to which will be found in the Preface to this work, page viii. The style is quaint, easy, and well adapted for the expression of fable. It cannot be considered, however, as a very good model for composition, though it may serve as a stepping-stone to something better, and to familiarise the student with the expression of native modes of thought. But these fables abound in good colloquial phrases, to which the student will be directed by the hyphen in many cases. And here it may be observed, that the hyphen in this work is often placed between syllables which are merely grammatically united, and not absolutely, as is the case in compound words; e.g. the negatives $p \ddot{u}$ 'not,' $w \dot{u}$ 'without;' some verbs, as $s \ddot{u} \dot{t}$ 'to follow,'

may serve the interests of individuals; and that the feelings of all men are similar, (for who is there that does not hate death and love life?) And although your honourable nation is two myriads of li across the vast ocean, yet you acknowledge the same Providence and the same human feelings, and there is not one of you ignorant respecting life and death,—profit and loss. Now the Celestial dynasty looks upon all within the four seas * as one family, and the benevolence of our great Emperor (like that of heaven) comprehends all; even desert places and disconnected regions alike receive their life and nurture from thence. There has existed at Canton, from the time of the removal of the restrictions on maritime communication up to the present, regular commercial dealing, and the people of China, generally, have held a peaceful and profitable intercourse with those who came from abroad in foreign ships during a period of several tens of years until now. Moreover, with reference to rhubarb, teas, and the silks of the Lake provinces and such other commodities, which are the valuable and rich productions of China; were foreign nations unable to procure them, they would be without the means of enjoying their lives; but the Celestial court, looking with benevolence towards all alike, has permitted trade to be carried on with foreigners, without the least stint or grudge, and has in this course undoubtedly had no other aim in view than to imitate the beneficent principles which unite heaven and earth. But there is a class of unprincipled Barbarians, who manufacture opium, and bring it here for sale. And thus, in order to contrive profit for themselves, they tempt the common people of our land to the injury of their bodies. Formerly the consumers were only a few, but latterly the habit has spread its contagion, while it extends more deeply every day towards the centre of the land,—with its rich, fruitful, and flourishing population. But although, among the common people, there are many who gratify their appetites at the expense of their lives, and as this is the origin of the evils resulting from the habit, their case does not call for pity. Yet, when we consider the empire as a whole, under the rule of the Tá-tsing ('Great Pure') dynasty, it is a matter of importance that the minds of men should be directed in the formation of correct How then can we be willing to cause the inhabitants of the world to take with pleasure this deadly poison? Therefore from henceforth both those in the Inner land (China) who deal in opium, and also those who eat it, shall alike be liable to the severest punishment; and a perpetual prohibition against it shall be enacted and be made known every where. We have considered that this poisonous article is the secret production of artful and designing people within the boundaries of your honourable nation's tributary kingdoms, and that neither the sovereign of your honourable nation has caused it to be made, nor that even all these kingdoms manufacture it; -yea, we have heard that your honourable nation does not allow your own people to consume it, and that offenders will surely be reproved. It is certainly from knowing its evil effects that these severe prohibitions have been made.

^{*} The expression 'four seas' sometimes means 'China,' at other times 'the world.'
PART II.

24. Official Papers (Lin's Letter to Queen Victoria (2)), v. native text, page 24.

Jên kin k'î kĭ-shĭ,—hô-jû kin k'î fán-mai, pîng kin k'î chi-tsaú? a. 1. naì wei ts ing-yuên chi taú. Jờ tsź pǔ-shǐ, ậr-jîng kàn chi-tsaú fán-maí a. 17. yìn-yiù Nüí-tí yū-mîn; tsǐ-shí yŭ-kì chī sāng, âr hiện-jîn chī sz; yŭ-kì b. 4. chī lì, ậr î-jîn ì hai. Tsz-kiaī jîn-ts'îng chī sò t'ûng-hạn, t'iēn-taú chī sò b. 23. pŭ-yûng. Iì T'iēn-chaū lǐ-chín Hwâ-Iî; hô-nân lǐ-chí k'î míng? ậr yàng-C. 12. ť i shíng-mîng kwān-tá, tsí î kaú-kiaī yū siēn; tsiè ts ûng-ts iên wí yúng-C. 29. kūng-wân, î-hwii kwei-kwŏ Wâng; yĭ-tān kin-yên, tsǐ yiû tĕ-yiù wei d. 15. pŭ-chī. Kīn yù kweí-kwŏ Wâng yŏ tsiāng tsż haí-jîn chī ā-piēn, e. 2. yûng-yuèn twán-tsů; ngò Nüí-tí kín-jîn kǐ-shǐ, yǐ shǔ-kwŏ kín-jîn e. 18. chí-tsaú; k'î ts'ûng-ts'iên ì-kīng tsaú-tsŏ-chè, kweí-kwŏ lǐ-tsǐ pān-líng f. 4. hîng seù tsín-t'eû chī haì-tī; twán pǔ-hù t'iēn-tí kiēn kāng-yiù tǔ-wǔ. f. 20. Fī-tŭ Nüí-tí mîn-jîn pŭ-sheú k'î haí, tsi kweí-kwŏ mîn-jîn (kí-yiù g. 7. tsaú-tsŏ, ān chī k'î pŭ kĭ-shĭ) kwò pîng tsaú-tsŏ sháng kín chī, tsĕ kaīg. 24. kwö yǐ pǔ-sheú k'î haí. K'ì pǔ-kŏ hiàng t'aí-pîng chī fǔ! Yǐ-chaú h. 11. kweî-kwŏ kūng-shán chī chîn, jû-tsz tsĕ mîng yū t'iēn-lì, ậr Sháng-t'iēn h. 27. pŭ-chí kiáng tsaī. Hǐ hû jîn-ts'îng ậr shíng-jîn. Yi-pi chī hù, hwáng i. 14. Niií-tí kí-kīng yên-kín, wû-shí kǐ-shǐ, tši-shí kaī-kwŏ chí-tsaú, tsūngi. 29. yǐ wû-chứ kô-maí, wû-lì kô-t'û. Yù kî kwei-pàn t'û-laû, hô-pǔ kaì j. 16. t'û pĭ-nië? Hwàng Nüí-tí seù-ch'ŭ ā-piēn tsín-hîng fú-hò yiû shaūk. 4. weì, tsaí yiù Iî-ch'uên kiă-taí ā-piēn, ts'iên-laî pŭ-nâng-pŭ yĭ-t'ì shaūk. 20. wei. K'ùng (ch'uên nüí sò tsaí t'ā hó) nân mièn yŭ-shǐ, k'ū fận. Shí lìl. 7. pǔ-tě ậr hai ì-hîng, yǔ hai-jîn ậr siēn hai-kì yè. Tiēn-chaū chī sò-ì l. 23.

i 'to use,' which are employed as prepositions (then meaning 'with' or 'by'); and auxiliary verbs, as nâng 'to be able,' k'ò 'can, may;' and demonstratives, as tsz 'this' and k'i 'his;' and the reflexive particles tsz 'self,' siāng 'mutual,' are generally united by the hyphen to the words which they affect. Very much might be done in this way to make Chinese, even the terse, classical style, intelligible in Roman letter; and it is devoutly to be wished that the various dialects may, before long, be represented by the Latin alphabet, and be freed from the cumbrous characters, which, for the masses, clog the path to knowledge.

Süt. 2 (21. g. 25), lit. 'follow,—use,' forms a redundant expression for 'with.' We have süt alone in süt-sheù (21. c. 21) 'with the hand.'

There is a great mixture of classical and colloquial terms in the style of these fables; e.g. (in 21. a. 10) we have $f\hat{u}$ - $ch\hat{e}$ instead of $f\hat{u}$ - $ts\hat{i}n$, which is the colloquial term. Again, "the lion was sleeping in ($y\hat{u}$ —21. g. 10) a wild region;" "the mouse was playing in ($tsa\hat{i}$ —21. g. 15) (or at) his side." Here different words are employed for 'in,' perhaps to avoid tautology, but $y\hat{u}$ is not often used in colloquial style. $F\bar{a}n$ - $f\bar{u}$ (21. a. 22) 'command, bidding,' is the common expression for commanding an inferior.

The expression $p\ddot{u}$ - $j\dot{u}$ (21. h. 20) has occurred several times. It signifies literally, 'not as' or 'not like,' and must be explained to mean 'there is nothing like' or 'the best thing to do is:' (cf. 14. i. 24. and 21. o. 14.)

Tsiāng a (21. i. 18) in the sense of 'to take' is not very common; it corresponds in use to pa^b 'to take,' meaning 'referring to, touching, concerning,' it refers to the object mentioned, and helps to form an expression, like the "accusative of closer specification"

Translation of Official Papers (Lin's Letter to Queen Victoria (2)), v. native text, page 24.

But though you forbid the eating of it, -what is that compared with the prohibition of its sale and the restriction on its manufacture?—this latter would be the rational means of cleansing the source. If you do not eat it yourselves, yet by continuing presumptuously the manufacture and the sale of it, you tempt the lower orders of the Inner land (China),—you truly desire to live yourselves and to overwhelm others in death,-you seek your own profit, and bring loss upon other men. All these things are what the common feelings of humanity hold in abhorrence, and what Divine Providence will not tolerate. And since the power of the Celestial dynasty moves both Chinese and Barbarians, what difficulty would there be in establishing regulations respecting their fate? But having regard to propriety, sacred honour, and magnanimity, it is certainly proper, in the first place, to issue commands; and, as heretofore no public despatch has been sent to the Sovereign of your honourable kingdom, if the matter be the subject of rigid prohibition on a sudden, then some may be tempted to plead ignorance as an excuse. But as the case stands, we would with the Sovereign of your honourable nation, covenant to abolish for ever this hurtful opium drug, we should forbid the consumption of it in the Inner land (China), and the tributary kingdoms also should forbid the manufacture of it. As for that which has already been made, your honourable government should issue commands for its collection from every quarter, and for its complete destruction in the bottom of the sea, nor let any more of the poisonous article exist any longer in the world. Then not only will the people of the Inner land (China) not be injured by it, but also the said people of your honourable nation (who being the makers of it certainly know how to eat it), when the manufacture is forbidden, will of necessity be also uninjured by it. Will not each party then enjoy the happiness of peace? And in addition to this, by your honourable nation's respectful and sincere obedience, you will show a clear apprehension of divine principles, and Heaven will not bring down calamities upon us. This will be in harmony with the feelings of humanity and with those of the sacred sages. Also let it be remembered besides, that the people of the Inner land (China), being under severe prohibitions against the eating of it, if the aforesaid nations still manufacture it, there will assuredly be no market for it, and no device will cause profit to arise there-Thus, with the prospect of losing the capital and labouring in vain, will it not be better to change your plans for another employment?

Furthermore, all the opium which can be found in the Inner land (China) has been delivered over to be consumed by fire, and if in future there happen to be any Barbarian ships conveying opium hither, the whole must be destroyed by fire. But we fear (as there will be other goods in the same ships) it will be difficult to distinguish the jewel from the stone, and all must be burnt alike. Thus, not obtaining any profit, and injury taking a substantial form, in wishing to hurt others, you will hurt yourselves first. The Celestial dynasty's

m. 12. chîn fŭ wán-kwŏ chè, chíng yiù pŭ-ts'ě chī shîn, weī wû weí, yên chī m. 28. pŭ-tsaù yè. Kwei-kwŏ Wâng tsĭ-taú tsż-wận, tsĭ tsiāng kŏ haì-k'eù n. 13. twán-tsử, yuên-yiû sử-hìng î feú hìng. Wữ-hwâng shǐ chī t'îng n. 27. ch'ù tsĭ.

Taú-kwāng shǐ-kiù niên ár yữ ---- jǐ, î-hwüí Yīng-kwŏ chī 0. 3. 0. 21. chaú.

25. Official Papers (From the 'Supplementary Treaty of 1844'), v. native text, page 25.

I. Yǐ sò-yiù Kīn-ch'aī, Kūng-shí, Tá-chîn hwá-yă k'iên-yín, tsín a. 1. a. 15. ch'ŭ-k'eù hó-wŭ shwüi-hiàng, tsĭ-lí fú-niēn chī tsĕ, sź-heú Kwûng-cheū,

b. 1. Fǔ-cheū, Hiá-mận, Nîng-pō, Sháng-haì, wù kiàng-k'eù, kiūn fúng ì-

wei shi. b. 15.

b. 18. II. Yĭ sò-yiù Kīn-ch'aī, Kūng-shí, Tá-chîn hwá-yă k'iện-yín sĩn-C. 2. tíng meú-yǐ chāng-ch'îng fú-niēn chī kién, sź-heú wù kiàng-k'eù, kiūnc. 17. fúng ì-wei shi.

III. Yǐ sīn-tíng meú-yǐ chāng-ch'îng tí-sān t'iaû, hó-ch'uên tsín C. 22. d. 5. k'eù paú kwān yǐ-kw'àn, nüí sò yên fă yîn jŏ kān yuên, kǐ hó-wǔ ch'â d. 22. ch'aū ji kwān tàng yū, tsz yîn liên hó yíng-kweī Chūng-hwâ kwŏ nû,

e. 8. ì ch'ūng kūng-hiáng.

IV. Yi Kwâng-cheū, Fŭ-cheū, Hiá-mận, Nîng-pō, Sháng-haì, wù е. 13. kiàng-k'eù, k'aī kwān chī heú, k'î Yīng-shāng meú-yǐ chú-sò, chĕ chàn e. 25. f. 10. wù kiàng-k'eù. Pŭ-chạn fú t'ā-chứ kiàng-k'eù, yǐ pŭ-hù Hwâ-mîn tsaí t'ā-chứ kiảng-k'eù, ch'uén t'ûng sẽ siāng meú-yĭ, tsiāng-laî Yīng-kwŏ f. 26. g. 10. Kũng-shí yiù yứ-shí mîng, pǔ-hù t'ā-wàng, ậr Yīng-shāng jû hwŏ peí g. 26. yŏ, pŭ-fŭ kìn-líng, kǐ tsiāng Kūng-shí kaú-shí chí jŏ wàng wān, shén wàng t'ā-chú kiàng-k'eù, yiû pién fán-maí jín p'îng Chūng-kwŏ yuênh. 12. pién, liên-ch'uên liên-hó yĭ-píng ch'aū tsú jǐ kwăn, Yīng-kwān pŭ-tĕ h. 26. tsậng-lận, t'âng Hwâ-mîn tsaí t'ā-chứ kiàng-k'eù, yữ Yīng-shãng sẽ i. 11. ch'uén meú-yĭ, tsĩ Kwŏ fã kắ tsaí, yíng-chaú lí pán-lì. i. 25.

j. 11. V. Yǐ tsiên tsaí Kiāng-nân niĕ-kīng í-tíng, ì-heú shāng k'ién, twán pŭ-k'ò kwān wei paù kiaū, yiú sīn tíng meú-yi chāng-ch'îng tí-sź t'iaû, j. 25. Yīng-shāng yù Hwa-shāng kiau-yǐ yǐ-kwan, nüí-fǔ tsiāng pǔ-nang k. 11. k. 25. chỉ yâng-hâng taí per-chī kiú lí, ch'îng chữ chỏ per.

l. 10. mîng tsaí gán. Sź-heú pŭ-k'ū Hwâ-shāng k'ién Yīng-shāng, kǐ Yīng-

in Greek: (cf. Part I. Art. 407. 6.) There is another example of this use of tsiang in 21. 1. 11.

A-mi-to Fŭ (21, 1, 26). This is the common name of Buddha in China. The name which serves for all the various forms of calling upon the deity, whether in oaths or in prayers.

Observe the use of siāng b in siāng-k'iû (21. m. 10), in which expression it corresponds to the use of the middle voice in Greek. It implies two parties: (cf. Part I. Art. 215.)

means of holding the myriads of nations in subjection is unfathomable and divine, and produces reverence beyond the power of words to tell! Let it not be said that early warning was not given! When Your Majesty receives this despatch, then take measures for seizing all the opium at every sea-port, and send us a speedy reply. Do not, by false embellishments, evade or delay! Earnestly reflect on these things, and earnestly observe them!

Translation of Official Papers (From the 'Supplementary Treaty of 1844'), v. native text, page 25.*

Art. I. † The tariff of export and import duties which is hereunto attached, under the seals and signatures of the respective plenipotentiary and commissioners, shall henceforward be enforced at the five ports of Canton, Fu-chau fu, Amoy, Ningpo, and Shanghai.

Art. II. The general regulations of trade which are hereunto attached under the seals and signatures of the respective plenipotentiary and commissioners shall henceforward be in force at the five afore-named ports.

Art. III. All penalties enforced, or confiscations made, under the third clause of the said general regulations of trade, shall belong, and be appropriated to, the public service of the government of China.

Art. IV. After the five ports of Canton, Fu-chau, Amoy, Ningpo, and Shanghai shall be thrown open, English merchants shall be allowed to trade only at those five ports. Neither shall they repair to any other ports or places, nor will the Chinese people, at any other ports or places, be permitted to trade with them. If English merchant vessels shall, in contravention of this agreement, and of a proclamation to the same purport, to be issued by the British plenipotentiary, repair to any other ports or places, the Chinese government officers shall be at liberty to seize and confiscate both vessels and cargoes; and should Chinese people be discovered clandestinely dealing with English merchants at any other ports or places, they shall be punished by the Chinese government in such a manner as the law may direct.

Art. V. Formerly in *Kiang-nan* it was agreed that the government could not be responsible for the debts of merchants, and according to the 4th clause of the newly established regulations concerning 'commercial dealings between English and Chinese merchants,' it is no longer allowable to ask for the repayment of debts by appealing to the old laws, which required the Hong merchants to pay the debts of each. This is truly and clearly declared in the records. Henceforth, whether a Chinese merchant owe any thing to an English merchant, or an English merchant owe to a Chinese merchant, if the

^{*} Page 25 of the native text was erroneously headed 'a notice and a petition,' which should have been the heading for page 26.

⁺ The version here given is that published as the English treaty, which was in fact the original, and of which the Chinese text in the Chrestomathy is the translation.

l. 24. shāng k'ién Hwâ-shāng chī chai, jû kò cháng-kú k'iŏ-tsŏ, jîn tsai ch'ān

m. 9. ts 4n, kiun ying yiû Hwa Ying kai kwan-sz-kwan, yi-t'i ts ang kung-

m. 23. chú kĩ, ì-chaú pîng-yûn. Jîng-chaú yuên-yǒ p°î-tsz taí-weí chŏ-chuī,

n. 9. kiūn pǔ taí-weí paù-ch'âng.

n. 16. VI. Yǐ Kwâng-cheū tạng wù kiàng-k'eù, Yīng-shāng, hwŏ châng

n. 27. ch'uên kú-chú, hwŏ pŭ-shî wàng-laî, kiūn pŭ-k'ò wáng taú hiáng-kiēn,

o. 12. jín-í yiû-hîng, yiú kāng pŭ-k'ò yuèn-ji nüí-tí meú-yi.

26. Official Papers (a notice and a petition), v. native text, page 26.

a. 2. Kín yé-hîng yŏ.

a. 7. Lǐ kín yở jîn meũ-meũ tặng, weí yên kín yé-hîng, ì tsîng tí-fāng a. 23. sź. Kwŏ-kiā chứng-mận kǐ-sĩ, yŵ-taí hứ paú-kẽ, hiāng-mîn t'î-lîng haú-

b. 10. pāng, kīn fâng k'î taú-tsĕ. Kiuī yiù mîng kîn. Shüî kàn weî fàn. Kín

b. 25. kiến tí-fãng fặn-lwán, taú-tsẽ ch ãng-kw āng, tsũng yiû yê-hîng pǔ-kìn.

c. 10. Hî piến k'ī-chă? Shí ì shîng-kî gán taú, shín chí mîng-hò ki âng-kiĕ,

c. 26. ts'ìn pǔ-gān chìn, kiā pǔ-liaû sāng. Haí mŏ tsǐ ì! Hó shǔ tá yên! Weí-

d. 13. tsż shĕ tsiù hwüí chúng, yên shĕ kín-yŏ. Yĭ yű hwāng hwān, tsĭ kín

d. 28. jîn hîng, chǐ chí wù-kạng sān-tièn, fāng k'ò-jín k'î laî-wàng. Meī-jĩ

e. 14. lận-liû siûn lô, jû yiù fán-kín-chè, mîng-lô weí haú, kŏ-kŏ sheù-chǐ

f. 1. ts'îang, taū, nù, ch'úng, shă-sz wă-lán, t'àng mîng-lô shî, ch'â tièn yǐ

f. 16. mîng pử-taú, laî-ji ts ĩng-shîn, hwií-chúng kúng-fời, kiủ pừ k ĩng taí.

g. 1. Tí siè lǐ sú chì, shă chứ chāng-kwá, shứ p i sing taí yữ chi jîn, chi sò g. 19. kiaí: ậr ki-mîng keù-taú chi jîn tẻ ch'ìng ì. Kìn-yŏ.

The pronoun k't' he, his,' in the expressions k't-chē (21. m. 29), k't-mà (21. n. 3), is used like our definite article 'the,' for the second person $j\lambda$ (21. m. 25) has just been used, therefore k't could not be construed as 'his' in this place.

 $Y\ddot{u}$ c frequently means 'with reference to;' so in to beg something of somebody, it signifies 'of' or 'from,' as in 22. a. 13.

Tsö-chü (22. a. 29), lit. 'to be the master,' is 'to act as judge:' (cf. Part I. Arts. 221, 361. 5, and 371.) Tsö is again used for the verb to be in 22. c. 26. Taú-lì (22. b. 23) 'law of reason, rule of right,' is the general term for 'good principles' of justice, taste, feeling, or judgment. It is to a Chinese that indefinable standard of right and wrong, which suits his own peculiar habits, tastes, or feelings: (cf. Mr. Commissioner Yeh's dialogues with his interpreter, Mr. C. Alabaster, given in the Times during the war of 1856.)

Mŭ-kǐ (22. d. 19), lit. 'eyes struck at,' must here mean 'happened to see.'

Ti-ching (22. e. 9), lit. 'iron evidence,' means 'strong testimony.'

Lin, the author of the paper addressed to the Queen of England, which is to be found on pages 23 and 24, was, like Yeh of recent notoriety, a good representative of the exclusive policy of the Chinese. He was an able writer, and a sincere upholder of the government which he served. He was the tool of the then dominant party in Peking, whose plan was to suppress the opium trade and to humble foreigners. His great literary work, the Haì-kwö t'â-chi, has been noticed on page 15 of Part II. Many errors exist in those parts of it which relate to foreign nations, but a good deal of information is to be found in it upon other subjects, which relate to China and the neighbouring countries.

accounts and vouchers be well authenticated, the persons present and the property still existing shall be dealt with by the Chinese and English authorities, according to the principles of justice, so as to manifest impartiality. And, according to the original stipulations, both these authorities shall prosecute in behalf of creditors, but in no case shall they be made responsible for them *.

Art. VI. It is agreed that English merchants and others, residing at or resorting to the five ports to be opened, shall not go into the surrounding country beyond certain short distances, to be named by the local authorities in concert with the British consul, and on no pretence for purposes of traffic.

Translation of Official Papers (a notice and a petition), v. native text, page 26.

A prohibition against walking out after nightfall.

It has been agreed upon to forbid strictly any person walking out after nightfall, in order that the state of the neighbourhood may be peaceful.

When the city gates of the kingdom have been shut, the night watches shall be rung with the bell, to warn off persons of bad character; the country people shall sound little bells and strike the watchman's bamboo, diligently to keep in check thieves and robbers. These all are definite prohibitions. Who will dare to oppose and transgress? Of late the land has been in much confusion, thieves and robbers have been ungovernable, generally going out by night without restraint. Such being the case, how can they conveniently be taken up for examination? Thus, availing themselves of the darkness, they contrive to go on plundering until the morning dawns, while the people cannot sleep at peace on their pillows, and the lives of the household are in danger. Evils, how immeasurable! calamities, how great! This is the reason why, having called a meeting of the whole body, it has been determined to issue this strict prohibition. As soon as the dusk of evening comes on, it is forbidden for persons to walk abroad, until three quarters after the fifth watch, when they may go to and fro as they list. Every day, by turns, persons shall go the rounds, and, if they find any one transgressing this prohibition, they shall strike the gong as a signal, and whoever is found with a spear, a sword, a cross-bow, or a musket, shall certainly be punished, whoever he be. If, at the striking of the gong, any person does not come to seek out the matter, on the next day, in the morning, he shall be punished before all, and he shall not lightly be pardoned. Let, then, several copies of this notice be written out and posted up every where, that all passers by may know of this prohibition, and that those thieves, who crow like cocks (to get the gates opened) and who steal like dogs, may not presume too much on their powers. Respect this agreement.

^{*} The 5th clause is not given in full in the English copy, we have therefore consulted the student's benefit by taking another version, which follows the Chinese text more closely. (Cf. a version of this treaty given in the Chinese Repository, vol. XIII. p. 143.)

h. 5.

n. 26.

Ts'ing chǐ-ch'û pìn.

h. 11. Shīn-k'īn Meū-meū kìn-pìn.

Pín wei shì-tau liên-p'ûng, kạn ts'ìng chǐ-ch'û, ì shín hò-tsaī-sz. i. 1. Chaú-tě hò-yāng yǐ-sź, süī yǚ: "T'iēn-míng," k'ì-fī jîn-sź! Tāngi. 16. j. 1. chủ pũ-shín, tsũ-jên hô-k'ì siaū-ts'iâng; lû-tsaú sũ yû, sửi àr yāng kĩ ch'î yù. Jo pă-yû wei fâng yû, k'î hai tsiang yiù pă-k'ò shing yên. j. 18. Pi shì-taú-sháng, liàng pâng liên-p'ûng haí-mǐ, t'àng yiù hò-chǔ, k. 4. tsüí yǐ yè-chŏ, tsiè p'ûng hí yìn-hò chī wǔ, hîng-taú-chī jîn, yēn-hò k. 18. wú kǐ, tsĩ hîng fận liaù. Hwàng kīn lûng-tũng chĩ tsì, wán-wǔ 1. 5. tsiaū-kán, süī shān-ts'aù yĭ weí chī chŏ-hò, àr shìn p'ûng chī sú í weí l. 19. lǐ hû? T'àng pử ch'ĩ k'ú, shīn wei pử-pién, lì-hŏ pìn ts'ìng. Iî-kiaī. m. 6. m. 23. Chǐ-ch aī cho líng hwüí chǐ, mièn weí hò tsaî. Tsà k'ì từ meū-tạng sheú k'î yĭ, shă p'î tsż k'ū-tĕ siãng ān àr. Weí-tsż pìn k'aú-fŭ weí chüî n. 9.

27. Dialogues and Phrases in the Mandarin Dialect (1), v. native text, page 27.

kién, chēn gān tsĩ fú laù-yê taî ts'iên shē hîng.

Ngò yiù yǐ-kién-sź-ts'îng k'iû nì. Shímmô sź-ts'îng ? Fáng-sīn shwŏ а. т. pá! K'iû-nì kǐ-ngò yī-pá-taū-tsà. Kǐ-ngò tsŏ ché-kó. Kàn-kiû Táa. 16. yê ché-kó gān-tièn. Hàn tsîng-yuēn Tō-sié. Haù-shwŏ! Sheú-liaù b. 4. nì-ti gān wâng-pǔ-liaù. Nì hạn chī-lì. Ngò kiēn-wei nì. b. 18. shímmô? Pŭ-pǐ tō-lì. Ngò hwān-hì nì. Pǔ kaī-tāng. Lì-tāng. C. 4. Nì nộng-keú î-kaú ngò. Kiaū ngò tsở shímmô? Nì yǐ-shwŏ, ngò tsiú C. 19. tsŏ. Nì yaú shímmô, ngò tsiú tsŏ shímmô. Pŭ-kàn. Kiû-nì tĭ-ngò d. 5. d. 21. wận Châng siēn-sāng haù *. Shí ngò tỉ haù pâng-yiù. Liû-hiá chémô-siē-kó lì-maú. Kiaū ngò shǐ-lì mô? Pǔ-yaú. Ché-yáng haù. e. 5. Ngò yaú shwŏ yǐ-kū-hwá, k'ùng-p'á tǐ-tsüí nì. Suî-pién shwŏ. Nì e. 20. ts'îng-fān tá.—Shí pǔ-shí? Shǐ-tsaí shí. Ngò shwŏ laù-shǐ hwá. f. 5. Kwò-jén shí ché-yáng. Shüî î-hwŏ? Ngò siàng shí. Ngò shwŏ pŭ-shí. f. 20. Tà-tù pa. Nì tù-sháng tō-shaù? Yǐ liàng yìn-tsà. Shwŏ-chīn. g. 5. Shwō-hwang. Kia-hwa. Shwō hū-hwa. Ngò fă-shi. Yi-ting ti hwa. g. 19. h. 3. Yĭ-kô-jîn shwŏ-liaù yĭ-tsź hwâng, heú-laî süī-jên shwŏ shĭ-hwá, mŭyiù jîn sín. Fân-jîn sá-hwâng, tsiú tiữ-liaù lién.-Pă-yaú sửî-k'eù h. 19. tă-ying. Ché-kó hwân-yiù jîn-sin mô? Ché-kó shi wáng-hwâng yên. i. 5.

Tsūng-tŭ (23. a. b. 12), lit. 'general-leader' or 'guide of all,' is the title given to the supreme governor of one or two provinces, and is nearly equivalent to our term viceroy. Siùn-fù (23. b. 23) is the title of the deputy governor of a province; the word itself would seem to imply that his duty was to see that peace was preserved,—siun means 'to go round' and fù 'to tranquillize.'

The Two Hu provinces are Hu-pĕ (north) and Hu-nan (south), and the Two Kwang provinces are Kwang-tung (east) and Kwang-sī (west).

Hwüi-t'ang (23. c. 1), 'to unite together,' is also expressed by hwüi-ho'a.

Chaú-hwüí (23. e. 3) 'communicate.' In the treaty which was negotiated by Lord Elgin, an article is inserted to render the use of this term obligatory when communications

^{*} This character should be hea 17: (cf. p. 32. native text.)

A petition asking for the removal [of old houses].

M. M—, Gentleman, respectfully petitions.

He makes a representation respecting the mat-sheds in the market-place, and earnestly begs that they may be removed, in order to guard against the calamity of a conflagration. Although the misfortune of fire is indeed said to be "a judgment from heaven," still it is assuredly the work of man. If lamps and candles be not taken care of, on a sudden misery arises among the wretched screens; and if the cooking stoves be not looked after, presently misfortune comes, even the fish in the ponds (will not escape). If we do not prepare and guard against (fire), the evils arising therefrom will be beyond the power of words to tell.

The mat-sheds on both sides of the market-place are covered thickly together, and if they should take fire, there would be disastrous consequences. The matting is, moreover, a material easy of combustion, and passers by who were smoking would endanger it, and might set the whole on fire. Besides, now on the approach of the winter quarter, every thing is in a dry state, and the mountain grass, with which the sheds are thatched, might take fire, to which the latter have always been liable. And if they are not taken away, it will be very inconvenient indeed. This is the reason why I petition, and beg of your worship to order the officers to pull them down, in order to avoid the calamity of fire. This will assuredly not only benefit individuals, but it will truly avail in preserving the peace. Therefore this petition has been presented; and should you deign to consider it, a great favour will be conferred. We hasten to present this to your worship for approval and execution.

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I have something to ask of you. What is it? Speak freely! I want you to give me a knife. Do this for me. I beseech you, Sir, to do me this favour. Gladly! Many thanks! Very well! If I receive your favour I shall never forget it. You are very polite! I am troubling you. What do you want? Do not use so much formality. I like you! Nonsense! It is not! You may depend upon me. What do you want me to do? Directly you speak I will act. Whatever you want I will do it. I could not think of it. I beg of you to give my compliments to Mr. Chang. He is a good friend of mine. Lay aside so much of this etiquette. Do you wish me to forget my manners? No, indeed! This is a good way. I want to speak a word, but I fear that it may offend you. Say what you like! You are very kind.—Is it so or not? It is indeed so! I speak honestly. Certainly it is so. Who doubts it? I think so. I say it is not so. Let us bet. How much will you bet? A dollar (lit. 'an ounce'). To speak the truth. To speak falsely. Untruth. To speak nonsense. I swear. It is positively asserted. If a man speak once falsely, afterwards, although he speak the truth, nobody will believe him Every man who tells a lie, throws away his reputation. Do not answer without thinking. Are there any who still

Ngò wân-ậr. Ngò pũ-kwó shwò siè-hwá. Shí-tĩ. Kaī-tāng tsờ i. 20. shimmô? Yiù shimmô k'ò tsŏ ti? Jû-kīn ngò-mận tsŏ shimmô haù? j. 4. Nì kĩ-ngô shímmô chù-í? Ché-kó tsàng-mô-yáng pán-fă-ậr. Tàngj. 20. yĭ-tàng, ngò ché-yáng tsố pâ. Nì siàng ché-yĭ-kién-sź-tsîng tsàngk. 6. mô-yáng? Tū-shí yǐ-kô-yáng.—Nì ts'ûng nà-lì laî? Wàng nà-lì k'ú. k. 21. Ngò k'ú Pĕ-kīng. Ts'ûng chaū-lì laî. Ts'ìng tsín-laî. Kín ngò laî. l. 10. Lî-k'aī! Tseù-pá! K'ú-pá! Wàng-heú t'üí yǐ-tièn-ḍr. Laî ché-lì. 1. 24. Tạng yĩ-hwuí-ậr. Tàng ngô laî. T'ā-mận yĩ-tsî k'ű-liaù. m. 9. m. 24. ché-mô k waí tseù. Nì tseù-tǐ t aí-k waí. Pŭ-yaú túng-sheù. Tsaí Mận kwān-liaù. Kaī-mận. Ts'úng ché-lì kwó. n. 8. pŭ-k'ú. Nì tiū-liaù shímmô? Ngò mǔ tiū shímmô. Weí-shímmô? n. 21. Yīn-wei ngò shǐ-liaù yǐ-kién-tūng-sī.—Kaū-shīng shwò. Tī-shīng 0. 6. shwŏ. Nì shwŏ-ti t'aí-k'waí, pŭ-nâng tûng-ti. 0, 21,

28. Dialogues and Phrases in the Mandarin Dialect (2), v. native text, page 28.

Nì hwüi-shwo Chūng-kwo hwá mô? Nì shwo-liaù mô? Tsūng mǔa. 1. yiù t'îng-kién ché-kô. Meú-jîn kaú-sū-liaù ngò. Heú-laî ngò kaúa. 15. sũ t'ã. Nì shwŏ-liaù ché-kó mŭ-yiù? Mŭ-yiù. Ts'ìng-wán ché-kó a. 30. shí shímmô? Chī-taú ché-kó mô? Shwŏ-tĕ. Shwŏ-pŭ-tĕ. Weíb. 15. shímmô nì pũ tă-ying?-Nì t'ing-kién ngò shwò mô? Ngò t'ing-pũb. 29. kién. Shwo ts'īng-ts'ú yĭ-tièn-ậr. Laî ché-lì t'íng. Ngò lî ná-kó-jîn c. 15. yuèn, t'ing-pŭ-kién t'ā-tĭ-hwá. Chín-lûng-liaù ngò-tǐ àr-tò.—Nì tûngd. 1. tě ts'īng t'ā-tǐ-hwá mô? Nì tûng-tě, t'ā shwŏ-kwó-tǐ? Ngò shwŏ-tǐ, d. 18. nì tũ tứng-tẽ mô? Nì shwŏ-tǐ, ngò ts'iuên tứng-tẽ. Tū tứng-tẽ. e. 4. pŭ-tûng-tě. Mîng-pě-liaù mŭ-yiù? Chê-kó shín-mô í-sź; Tsàng-môe. 20. yáng kiai-shwŏ. Ngò tsaí-nì-t'eû-lì chī-taú. Pì-fāng pử chī-taú, yiù f. 6. f. 22. shímmô kwân-hī? Ché-kó ngò pŭ-kwó siàng shí ché-yáng.—Jín-tě t'ā mô? Kiến-kwó t'ā kí-tsź nī? Pừ kí-tẽ tsź-sú. Wâng-liaù ngò mô? g. 9. g. 25. Ngò kí pử ts ing-ts ú. Kí-tě hán-ts ing. Siàng-pử-k ì-laî: Siàng-k ìlaî-liaù. Nì kì süí ? Siēn-sāng kweī-kāng ? Tō-tá niên-kí ? Yiù arh. 10. shī süí. Nì pì-ngò tá. Nì tá-kaī lǔ-shǐ tō süí. Ts'ú-liaù-tsīn mǔ h. 25. yiù ? Nì fú-mù tū tsaí mô ? Siēn-fú sź-liaù yiù liàng-niên. Mù-tsīn i. 12. tsaí-kiā-liaù yiù sān-kó-yū. Yiù kì-kó ḍr-tsż? Yiù kì-wei líng-lâng? i. 28. Yiù kì-wei kweī-nù? Sān-kó kū-niâng. Hiūng-ti kì-kó? Tsai-ti tān j. 15. ngò yǐ-kó, pǐ-tǐ tū sź-liaù. Nì shwo ché yǐ-kū-hwá, ngò k'ì-liaù yǐ-kók. 1. k. 20. nién-t'eû. Siàng-k'ì-liaù shímmô? Mièn-pǔ-liaù sź.—T'iēn-k'í hànhaù; ngò-mận ch'ŭ-k'ú, kwâng-yǐ-kwâng pâ. Ngò-mận k'ú liāng-kw'aí l. 4. l. 17. liāng-kwaí. Ngò-mận sháng-ch'îng pá! Lú pǔ-pién;—pǔ fāng-1. 29. pién; — pử pién-í. Yaú tsó-ché mô? Ngò shīn-sháng juèn-jò, mử-yiù lǐm. 15. liâng tseù. Ngò tseù-pŭ-túng. Yaú hîng kān-lú, yaú hîng shwuì-lú m. 29. nī? Yaú sháng-ch'uên mô? Yaú kì-ts'iâng-ti ch'uên? Hò-kí! nì taí

are held between superior officers of each nation. Chaû-tĕ (23. e. 17) means 'whereas, according as,' and is a common phrase in official papers. T'iēn-taû (23. c. 29), lit. 'the way of heaven,' means 'Divine Providence.' T'ûng (23. d. 22), 'together with,' appears here to signify 'with reference to' or 'as for.'

believe in this? This is a falsehood. I was playing. I was only joking. Truly! What ought I to do? What can I do? If we should do this well, what opinion should you have of us? How shall we manage this? Wait a while, let us do it in this way. How do you think this thing is? It is quite the same.—Where do you come from? Where are you going? I am going to Peking. I am come from Court. Please to come in. Come near to me. Stand further off. You may go. Go away! Go behind; fall back a little. Come here! Wait a little while. Wait until I come. They went all together. Do not walk so fast. You walk too fast. Be quiet! Sit down here. The door is fastened. Open the door. Come over here. I cannot come over. What have you thrown away? I have not thrown any thing away. Why? Because I have picked up something.—Speak loud! Speak low! You speak too quickly, I cannot understand.

Translation of Dialogues and Phrases in the Mandarin Dialect (2), v. native text, page 28.

Do you know how to speak the Chinese language? Have you spoken? I have not indeed heard that. A certain man told me. Afterwards I told him. Did you say this or not? If you please, what is this? or, Allow me to ask what this is. Do you know this? I can say; I cannot say. What! do not you reply?-Do you hear what I say? I cannot hear. Speak a little more distinctly. Come here and listen. At a distance from that man, I cannot hear what he says. It has deafened my ears.—Do you understand clearly what he says? Do you understand what he said? What I said, did you quite understand? What you said I perfectly understood. I quite understood. I did not understand at all. Were you clear about it or not? What is the meaning of this? How do you explain it? I knew before you. Suppose I do not understand, what would be the consequence? I only think this is so.—Do you know him? How many times have you seen him? I do not remember the number of times. Have you forgotten me? I cannot recollect distinctly. I remember very well. I cannot think or recollect. I have just remembered. How old are you? What is your honourable age, Sir? How great is your age? or, How many are your years? I am twenty years (old). You are older than I am. You are (I should say) above sixty years (old). Are you married or not? Are your parents alive? My late father died two years ago. mother married again three months ago. How many children have you? How many young gentlemen? How many young ladics? Three daughters (lit. 'misses'). Brothers, how many? I am by myself alone, the others are dead. When you uttered that expression, a thought arose in my mind. What did you think of? One cannot avoid death.—The weather is very fine, let us go out to take a walk. Let us go to take the air. Let us go into the city. The road is bad, (lit. 'not convenient,')-not in a good state,-not good for walking. Do you wish to ride? I am weak, I have not strength to walk. I cannot walk. Do you wish to go by land or by water? Will you go in a boat? What sized boat would you like? (lit. 'how many oared-boat?')

n. 14. ngỏ kwó hô pá l\ Kān-sīn! Ché-yǐ-chě-ch'uên mũ-yiù weî mô? Yaû-n. 29. ts'iâng-tseù, yiù nǐ-fūng, yiù tìng-t'eû-fūng. Yaú tsaí nà-lì sháng-0. 13. gān? Tsaí tá-mà-t'eû ná-lì. Lîn-kīn-liaù hô-piēn, hiá-maû. Ché-lì 0. 29. haù yā!

29. Dialogues and Phrases in the Mandarin Dialect (3), v. native text, page 29.

Aī-yā! ché-kó-tí-fâng hàn-haù-k'án;—wận-hô-tǐ, liâng-shwâng-tǐ? a. I. K'ān shú tū k'aī-liaù hwá-ār. Ché-yǐ-kān lŏ-liaù yĕ-tsz. Mĕ-tsz shŭa. 16. liaù. Nì fă-liaù mô? Shǐ-tsaí kwán-kiuén-liaù. Tsaí-ché-kó ts ingb. 4. tsaù-sháng t'ī-chŏ, haù. Tsín nà-kó shú-lîn. Tsaí ché-siē shú-ti-hiá b. 18. C. 4. hàn-haù-tǐ yīn-liâng. Kīn-niên kwò-tsż tō. Shú tō kǐ-liaù kwò-tsż. c. 20. Kīn-niên, niên-fūng. Kiû-niên shí hwâng-niên. Ché-lì yiù hànhaù-tǐ p'în-kwò, shā-lî, lì-tsz, yīng-t'aû. Ngò nîng-yaú hĕ-t'aû, hwŏd. 3. d. 19. shí lí-tsz. Ngò hán siàng-k'i t'aû-âr, kŭ-tsz, kān-tsz, tsáng-tsz. Chésié meî-tsz kāng haù. Yiù pû-taû maí mô? Chǐ tō-shaù ts iên yǐ-kīn? e. 7. Maì-tě sź-shǐ-kô tá-ts iên yǐ kīn. Maí shǐ-kī kīn pá!—T'iēn wán-liaù. e. 23. Jǐ-t'eû yaú lŏ-shān. Tàng-yĭ-hwüí t'iēn tsiú hĕ liaù. Kw'aí tseù pá; f. 10. nì-fă-liaù. K'i wán-fán. T'iēn-k'i tsạng-mô-yáng-haù? T'iên-k'i f. 25. làng. T'iēn yīn-liaù. Ché-kó wán-sháng haù t'iēn-k'í. Yiù ch'aûg. 9. g. 22. k'í. Yiù yûn-tsaì, k'án-pŭ-kién sīng-sŭ. Lwán-k'ì-fūng laî-liaù. Shí yǐ-kô paú-fũng. T'iēn-k'í ch'âng-pién. Haù hiá-yù. h. 6. h. 19. pŏ-tsż. Hiá-sŭ. Sŭ-hwā kaī liaù. Tà-lüî. Lüî-hiàng. Tà-shén. Lüî tà-sź-liaù yĭ-kô-jîn. Fūng-chuī. Fūng-tá. Paú-fūng kwô-k'úi. 3. i. 18. liaù, k'án-tĕ-kién t'iēn-hûng. Shí kó haù t'iēn-k'í tǐ p'îng-k'ú. Yiùj. 3. wú. Ji ch'ừ mán-mán-tĩ, tsiú sán-liaù. Hiá-lú. Hiá-shwāng.j. 17. Shímmô shí-heú? Kì-hiá-chûng? Pŭ-wán. Hwüî-kiā k'ú pá! j. 30. Hwân yiù-shî-heú, tsaí sháng-wù. Chā-pŭ-tō yǐ-hiá-chūng. Tàk. 14. liaù yĭ-hiá sān-kặ. Hwân mŭ-yiù tà sān-hiá ár-kặ. Nì tsàng-mô k. 30. chī-taú? T'īng-kién chủng tà-liaù. Ngò siàng pǔ-shí ché-yáng ch'î. K'án nì-tỉ piaù. Ngò-tỉ piaù tseù-tỉ-k'waí pŭ-tüí. Piaù mán kìl. 14. 1. 29. fān. Sháng-k'án jǐ-kweì. Shā-tsz-piaù tsaí nà-lì?—Nì hwān-hì m. 14. nà-kó shî-heú? Chān-t'iēn shí tsüí-haù-tĩ. Ché-kó t'iēn-k'í wậnm. 29. hô-tǐ, yè pŭ-jǐ, yè pŭ-làng. Ché pŭ-swan chan-t'ien, swan shí tungn. 15. t'iēn. Shú tū mǔ-yiù fă-yâ. Ché hiá-t'iēn jǐ-tě-hàn. Ngò ch'ǔ-liaù hán, yaú jǐ-sź. Tsūng mǔ-kiŏ-tĕ ché-yáng jǐ. Kaī-tāng hú-tō tǐ 0. 1. 0. 17. mű-sű-tsaù. Yaú sheū chwāng-kiā; kŏ-wân-liaù chwāng-kiā. Tsiúo. 30. t'iēn.

30. Dialogues and Phrases in the Mandarin Dialect (4), v. native text, page 30.

a. 2. Sháng-hiŏ.—Nì ché-yáng kw'aí wàng nà-lì paù. Ngò shàng-hiŏ.
a. 15. Ngò yè wàng nà-lì k'ú. Tạng yì-chèn-yèn. Pǔ-yaú maì-taī. Tsaí
a. 30. ngò-mận t'eủ-lì tseù-tǐ nà-yǐ-kô shí shüî? Shí ngò-mận t'ûng-hiŏ-tǐ.

b. 17. Tsà-mận tũ yĩ-kweĩ-ậr tseù pá!—Nì weí-shímmô laî-tǐ ché-mô ch'î.

Friend! Take us over the river! Gladly! Has this boat no masts? We must row; there is a contrary wind,—the wind is right a-head. Where do you want to go ashore? At that great jetty there! When you have approached the shore let go the anchor. Here is a good place!

Translation of Dialogues and Phrases in the Mandarin Dialect (3), v. native text, page 29.

Ah! this country is very pretty! pleasant and cool! See the trees have all blossomed. This one has shed its leaves. The corn is ripe. Are you spent? I am indeed tired. To fling ourselves down on this green grass will be pleasant. Enter that forest. Under the trees it is very shady. This year there is plenty of fruit. Many trees have borne fruit. This year was an abundant year. Last year was a year of scarcity. Here there are very good apples, pears, plums, and cherries. I prefer walnuts or chestnuts. I am very fond of eating peaches, small oranges, or large thin-skinned oranges or coolie oranges. Those plums are better. Have you any grapes to sell? They cost how much a pound? I can sell them at forty large cash a pound. Buy a few pounds!-The day is very fine. The sun is going to set. Wait a while, it will soon be dark. If you walk fast, you will be wearied. Eat your evening meal. How is the weather? The weather is cold. The sky is overcast. This evening it is fine weather. It is damp. It is cloudy; I cannot see the stars. The wind has risen in gusts. It is a gale. The weather is ever changing. It rains hard. It hails. It snows. It is snowing in flakes. It thunders. The thunder roars. It lightens. The thunder (bolt) has killed a man. The wind blows. The wind is high. The storm is past, we can see the rainbow. It is a sign of fair weather. It is misty. The sun will come out by-and-by, then it will be dispersed. The dew is falling. The hoarfrost is falling.—What time is it? What o'clock is it? Not late. Let us go home! There is time (enough) yet, it is still forenoon. It is nearly one o'clock. It has struck one and three quarters. It has not yet struck three and two quarters. How do you know? I heard the clock strike. I do not think it is so late. Look at your watch. My watch goes fast, it will not agree. Your watch is slow, how many minutes? Go and look at the sun-dial. Where is the sandglass? Do you like this season? Spring is the best. This weather is pleasant; it is neither hot nor cold. This is not like spring; it is like winter. The trees have not yet budded. This summer it is very hot. I am perspiring, I shall die of heat. I never experienced such heat. We ought to have a large crop of millet. You should reap. I have reaped. Autumn.

Translation of Dialogues and Phrases in the Mandarin Dialect (4), v. native text, page 30.

On going to school.—Where are you running so fast? I am going to school. I am going there too. Wait a minute. Don't loiter. Who is that walking in front of us? It is our school-fellow. Let us all walk together!—Why do you come so late? I was up late last night, and could not rise early. At what

Ngò tsŏ-jǐ ngaú-liaù yè, pŭ-nâng tsaù k'ì-laî. Nì shí kì-hiá-chûng C. 5. k'ì-laî-ti? Nì haù-làn-tó. Wei-shimmô ts iên-ji pu laî? Nà yi-ji-sz-C. 21. ts'îng hàn-mâng, pŭ-tĕ k'ùng-ḍr laî. Liaú-lì shí-sử tǐ sź-ts'îng d. 9. sháng-t'eû yiù-tǐ weî-hièn pŭ-shaù. Jŏ pĭ-jîn míng-nì pá-liaù, taúd. 24. tí nì-tǐ sz-fū míng-nì, pŭ-t'íng, ché-kŏ liaù pŭ-tě; hwáng-tsiè nì tānе. 10. kŏ-liaù nì-tǐ sź-ts'îng yiù tá kwān-hí. Süî-pién t'ā tà, pŭ-wú yaú e. 28. liaù nì-tǐ pạn-fān. Ché-sān-t'iēn nì pừ niên-shū, pǔ-haù. Tsaí pǔf. 15. yaú ché-yáng. Ts'iên yĭ-tsz nì laî ché-lì, ngò fān-fú-liaù nì shímmô? g. 1. K'ú nì-tĩ fâng tsó. Taí nì-tĩ maú-tsà. K'án-nì-tĩ shū. Yû-pí nì g. 18. yaú peí-tǐ-shū. T'ing-ming! Nién-wân-liaù mŭ-yiù? Hwân mŭh. 5. yiù. Nì pǐ-mĕ-yén tū yiù-liaù mô? Ché-kó maî tsź shímmô shīngh. 18. yīn? Yīn maì. Tsạng-mô kiaì-shwo? Yiù tsáng tǐ í-sź. Tsũng i. 4. mŭ-yiù k'án-kién ché-yáng-tǐ yĭ-kó-tsź. Ché-yĭ-pạn-shū nûn-tûng. i. 17. Ngò mữ-yiù hű-tō tǐ kũng-fũ. Yīn-wei ngò kaĩ-táng kàn-k'ú maì j. 3. tūng-sī; līng-waì hwân yiù pĭ-tĭ sź-ts'îng kaī-tāng pán. Nì siaù-sīn j. 19. meì-ji nién-ti-shū; līng-waí yi-kó-yü hwân yaú-tsó liàng-piēn wậnk. 5. chāng.—Nì haù yā? Hàn-haù. Nì yúng-liaù fán mô? K'ĩ-liaù. k. 21. Líng-tsān haù? Kiā-fú haù. Nì tǐ k'iù-k'iù tsàng-mô-yáng? T'ā jûl. 5. kīn pì t'eû-lì haù-tĕ-tō. Mîng-jǐ tsaí-kién! Ngò kaī-tāng súng-hîng. l. 20. T'iēn tsiāng-hě. Taú-liaù shüí-kiŏ tǐ shî-heú. Hò-kí, nì t'ûng ngò laî. m. 7. m. 23. P'a-kweī mô? Pŭ-p'a. Fáng-hiá wận-ch'âng. Liû-hiá tāng. Mĭtāng. Mîng-t'iēn tsaù-siē k'ì-laî, kiaū-ngò. Ngò kaī-tāng ts'īng-tsaù n. 6. k'ì-laî. Yĭ-tíng kì-tĕ mô? Yi-tíng kì-tĕ. Tà-hò. Tièn-tāng. Mŭn. 20. yiù hò-shĩ. Hò-meí-ậr.—Shüî tà-mận? Shí shuî? Ngò hwân mǔ-0. 6. yiù k'ì-laî. Tsaù sīng-liaù. T'iēn tá-liáng-liaù. 0. 21.

31. Extract from the Ching-yīn tsüí-yaú, v. native text, page 31.

Yĭ-kô-jîn hiŏ Kwān-hwá laî, tsó shímmô tǐ nī? T'eû-yĭ-kién yû-pé a. 1. tsź-kì tsiāng-laî ch'ŭ-shīn tsó-kwān, sź-heú sháng-sz, lîn-lī shŭ-yuên, a. 18. yaú tsó yĭ-kó yiù-pàn-sź-tǐ Kwān yā! K'î-ts'ź, tsiú tsó tá-k'ĕ-shāng, b. 4. hwŏ kaī hâng-tién, hwŏ wàng waí-sáng tseù shwüì, yaú-tsó yĭ-kó màb. 21. lì-tǐ k'ĕ-shāng. Tsaí k'î-ts'ź, tsiú-shí kú-kiā pá-tsĕ,—nì shí kó yiùc. 6. ī-shǐ-tǐ jîn, yiù-t'ì-mién-tǐ jîn, tsaí hiāng-tsǔ-chūng, nièn-ch'âng yǔ-C. 23. ch'âng, hiāng-ts'îng tsŭ-sź, shaù-pŭ-liaù; yè yiù kién pà sź-ậr, yaú t'ĕ d. 9. jîn-kiā liaú-lì liaú-lì; yè tĕ kién-kién tí-fāng, pà sź-ậr shwŏ kó tī-sí d. 25. ts'îng-tsĭ, yĭ-tsĕ wei-kú hiāng-tsŭ, ár-tsĕ paù-hú mận-meî; yuên-shí wei е. 14. ché sān-mận k'ì-kién, píng pừ shí shwo kì-kũ Kwān-hwá, tsaí tá-kiaī f. 1. f. 17. sháng, naû-wân í-ậr, siaú-hwá jîn-kiā, hĕ-húng jîn-kiā, hwán-hiūn jîn-kiā, tsiú swàn-liaù sź-lŏ. Sò-ì nì-mận tsūng-yaú pà tá-fāng tǐ g. 2.

Jîn (23. e. 24) 'benevolence, kindness;' see note on p. 28 of Part II.

Wu sò-pu-feu (23. e. 26) 'it overshadows every thing:' cf. Art. 422 of Part I.

The repetition of ping (23, f. 6, and 8) means 'both'—'and,' or 'at once'—'and.' In classical compositions, the Chinese are fond of using chung 'centre' (23, f. 11) and sin 'heart' (23, i. 12) for the origin or the moving principle of that with which it is joined.

Tsz — i-laî (23. f. 14), 'from — to the present time,' is a good example of this form of construction.

o'clock did you rise? You are very lazy. Why did you not come the day before? On that day I had to do some very urgent business and I could not find time. To managing affairs in the world there are obstacles not a few. If any one else command you, you are content; but if your tutor bid you do any thing, you do not obey. This will not do. Besides, if you shirk your work, great consequences will result. No matter whether he beats you or not, you do not hasten to your duty. You have not learnt any thing for these three days;—this is bad. Don't do it again. Once, on a former occasion, when you came here, what did I order you to do? Go to your room and sit down! Take your cap! Look at your book! Prepare your lesson to repeat. Obey! Have you learnt your lesson or not? Not yet. Have you your pencil, ink, and inkstone? What is the sound and tone of this (mai) character? The sound is mai. What is its meaning? It has the meaning of burying. I have never seen such a character as this. This book is difficult to understand. have not much time, because I have to fetch many things; and besides, I have other things to do. You take care and learn your book every day; besides every month write two chapters of elegant composition.—Are you well? Very well! Have you dined? I have. Is your good father well? My father is well. How is your uncle? He is much better than he was formerly. I shall see you again to-morrow. I will see you out!---It is getting dark. time has arrived. Friend! Come with me! Are you afraid of ghosts? No! Put down the mosquito curtains. Set down the lamp. Put out the lamp. Get up rather early in the morning and call me. I must get up early. you be sure to remember? I will certainly remember. Strike a light. Light the lamp. I have no flint. Coal.—Who is knocking at the door? Who is it? I am not up yet. Awake quickly, it is broad day-light.

Translation of the Extract from the Ching-yīn tsüí-yaú, v. native text, page 31.

When a man learns the Mandarin dialect, what is it for? In the first place, it is to prepare himself for future advancement as a Mandarin, so as to be able to attend on his superiors and to superintend his subordinates, and to be an officer of ability. In the next place, if he would be a mercantile man of the first class, whether he open an establishment (at home), or travel abroad in the provinces by land and water, he ought to be a shrewd and clever merchant. And again, even if a man must stay at home and do nothing much, being a man of independence and respectability, still among his country relatives, in the course of months and years, their affairs will not be a few, and each of these he will have to consider for them. And, if he see clearly his ground, he may take each matter and speak of it in detail and with much acuteness, then he will at once have a regard for his kinsmen's interests, and, at the same time, protect his own door. Now it is for these reasons, and lest also you be not able to speak a few sentences of Mandarin on the great thoroughfares, of a noisy, joking character, to make fun of people, or to deceive and make fools of them, that you must make it your business to learn Mandarin. Therefore you should take language of a liberal character, language suitable for receiving and waiting 32.

a. 2.

hwá-ậr, tsĩ-taí chàng-sháng tĩ hwá-ậr, yíng-cheū pâng-yiù tĩ hwá-ậr, g. 19. kiaû-taú wàn-peí tǐ hwá-ậr, shī hwān tí-hiá-jîn tǐ hwá-ậr, taú-liaù h. 5. waí-t'eû, yiù kiaū-kwān tsǐ-fú tǐ hwá-ŷr, tüí chŏ maì-maí jîn tǐ hwáh. 22. ậr, yáng-yáng tũ-yiù kó kw àn-shĩ. Yaú tsaí ché sháng-t eû liû-sīni. 9. ts aî-shí chíng-king tǐ yā! T'saî pǔ-wàng-liaù hiŏ Kwān-hwá tǐ ché yĭ-fān kūng-fū yā!

i. 24. j. 9. Nì tsò hiŏ-sāng tǐ jín, sháng shū-fâng niên-shū, shīmmô-tū-yaú k. 2. yiù kó kweī-kù; ts'īng-tsaù k'ì-laî, sī-liaù liên, hŏ-liaù ch'â, pín-kaú k. 17. tiē-tiē mā-mā, haî-ậr wàng shū-fâng k'ú-liaù, shwŏ-kwó chī heú, paū l. 3. k'ì shū-pàn, ch'ŭ tá-mận-k'eù, twān-twān chíng-chíng, chīn-chīn chúngl. 19. chûng ti k'ú, liàng-chĕ-kiả pử yaú hwán-ti'aû, liàng chĕ yèn-ts'îng pửm. 3. m. 18. yaú hwán-ts iaû tūng-sī, yǐ-chǐ tseù taù shū-fâng lì-t eû, pà shū pàn fáng-hiá, wáng Shíng-jîn shâng-t'eû, tsŏ kó yĕ, yiú t'i siēn-sāng tsŏ n. 4. kó yĕ, jên-heú tsó-chŏ nién-shū, pà shū peí-tĕ shǔ-shǔ ậr tǐ, ts'aì súng n. 19. 0. 7. taú siēn-sāng chŏ-sháng; peí-shū shî-heú, yiú yaú yǐ-kū-kū lìng-yâ lích'ì, pŭ-yaú hān hû tsó-leû! 0. 24.

The Epistolary Style, v. native text, page 32.

Wán-heú.

Kiù ts'i chēn Hān, wí hú jû yuén; kín wận î tsīng Kiāng yiú, tĕ a. 5. hwá ji sīn, yīn-sién chī sz, kāng shīn wú-mei. Hán pŭ-nâng ch'ă-ch'i a. 21. ậr fĩ-ts iâng tsò-yiú, kwān shíng hwá ậr lîng tế yên yè! Kīn yuên b. 6. hûng-pién, tǐ tsié yǐ-hâng, ì shīn tsǐ-kwan. Kien ts'ìng kīn gan; Jŭ b. 21. c. 6. weî kién nién.

Tă. d. 2. Shíng mîng kwán àr, fī yǐ-jǐ ì. Hwaî ī jîn âr pŭ-kién, chíng d. 4. ts'îng ts'i yū kiēn-kiā, naì hwâ hán hiá pān, yuèn-jû tǐ mién. Tán kiaì d. 19. sāng-pîng chī kī-kĕ. Hô híng jû chī! Weî shí siēn shī chī yà, chuēn shǔ e. 5. jîn jîn, wi mièn p'ì-yè ts ān-fū, tsź-tsāng nüi-kw'ei àr. T'àng yiù e. 22. f. 7. lidng-yuên, tĕ yaū hwiii kú, tsi ts ān tsiù lán wận. K'ò pǔ-líng kù-jîn f. 23. shên mei yū ts'iên ì. Shi wáng! Shi t'aù! King tsz ts'aî fŭ.

The English are variously characterized in this composition either as fán (23. g. 2) 'foreign,' (a word used originally for the inhabitants of the southern frontier of China,the southern barbarians,) or as ? (24. c. 20. and 24. k. 23) 'the western barbarians,' a tribe on the western frontier of China. Foreign nations are generally called wai-kwo (23. h. 4) 'outside kingdoms,' and sī-yang-kwo' western ocean kingdoms.'

The Supplementary Treaty, a part of which is given on p. 25 of the Chrestomathy, was published at Hongkong, in July 1844, by Sir John F. Davis, who was then Governor of Hongkong. It contains the very important provisions that the five ports of Canton, Amoy, Fu-cheu, Ningpo, and Shanghai should be opened to British trade, and for the resort and residence of British merchants; by it the close system of the Hong merchants at Canton was broken up, and free-trade allowed with any native merchants. This treaty was supplementary to the treaty of Nanking, which is indeed referred to in it: (cf. kiāng-nan &c. 25. j. 11.)

Hān (32. a. 8) or Hān Kīng-cheū was an eminent statesman, whose friendship reflected his own bright fame on those who enjoyed it. Intercourse with him ennobled the recipient upon seniors and superiors, phrases for polite intercourse with friends, the expressions appropriate for instructing young people, and language for calling upon inferiors. And when you go out of doors you will require expressions to use to mandarins, and others to address to merchants. There are models for all these (kinds of expression). You should pay attention to what has been said above: then it will be all right! Then you will not have wasted your time in studying the Mandarin dialect.

If you are a young student, you go up to school to study; now every thing has a rule. Rise early; and having washed your face and drunk your tea, announce to your parents that their son is going to school. Having said that, wrap up your book, go out at the front door, and proceed (to school) in a becoming manner. Your feet should not be skipping disorderly, nor your eyes be listlessly gazing at every thing. But proceed straight into the schoolhouse, take your book and lay it down, reverently look up to the sage above and make a bow, then make a bow to the tutor, and afterwards sit down to study. Having learnt off your lesson perfectly, then present it to your tutor and lay it on his desk. When you say your lesson, you should repeat every sentence distinctly and fluently, you should not mumble or leave out any words.

Translation of the Passages in the Epistolary Style, v. native text, page 32.

A letter of greeting.

For a long time I have looked reverently to Han, but have as yet not attained my desire. Recently I heard that you had removed your banner to the River's right, and that your virtue increases, and is renewed daily; my private feelings of joy become deeper, whether awake or asleep. Would that I were able to put on wings and fly to hover on your right and left! To behold your abounding progress, and to listen with delight to your gracious words! At present I am fortunately able to despatch a letter, and I just employ one line, in order to manifest my accumulated feelings of respect, and to wish you wealth and happiness. Humbly I bow, considering that you know my thoughts.

Reply.

Your flourishing reputation is ever sounding in mine ears, and that daily. I cherish kind regards for him whom I do not see. My feelings are just like those towards a distant relative, and in the favours conferred by his flowery pencil, I seem to see him face to face. I respectfully salute you with gratification on the fulfilment of my longings for peace. What fortune like this! But the praises which you have lavished upon me are simply such as belong to a really good man, and not to an insignificant and rude countryman; and they only increase my confusion. If a convenient opportunity should arise, pray accept my invitation, and favour me with your regard, that we may decant our wine and chat about literature. Let not our past differences stand in the way of our former esteem. This is my hope! This is my prayer! Respectfully I offer this in reply.

Kw'ei-wŭ. h. 3. Liâng-pâng kiù-kw'ŭ, yīn maû ts'iuên-wû, kiāng-haì chī tsù jîn t'aì i. 1. i. 15. shīn. K'ì tĕ yûn yuèn tsai yĭ-fāng hû? Weî shi tsź sin wâng hîng, tāng pữ fữ ts'ận sú-hwüî wû tsź chī tsiē, chí kwaī hân yàng. Hwángi. 30. heú hwüí yiù k'î, pă-tsaí yū shí, yuén tsaí yū t'iēn; k'î k'î kŏ-tsź nù j. 15. Tsz yuên hûng-pién, fú-sháng sheù-kīn yĭ-fāng, siaù-taū k. 2. liàng-pà; siē wî hiù-wŭ, pàn pŭ-tsŭ tāng mŭ lì chī t'eû, ậr ts'iēn lī k. 17. ngô-maû. Wŭ-hīng ts'îng chúng, liáng pǐ tù-tsz ậr yĭ-liên yû-lù chī 1. 4. lù-jîn ì. Chù weī chí-chě, mě t'aù nüí, wú k'î p'ién k'ě liû-shîn. l. 20. m. 7. Kìn tsz yuèn-tă, shán-ts'ing fŭ-gān, píng heú kín chì, píng heú m. 20. kāng nîng. Sháng

 $Me\bar{u}$ - $me\bar{u}$ $Hi\bar{u}ng$ -t'a \hat{i} $T\acute{a}$ - $j\hat{i}n$ w $\hat{q}n$ - $k\hat{i}$,

Yű-tí Meū-meū tsź tán.

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Poetical Extracts (Ancient and Modern), v. native text, page 33.
33.
                             K\hat{u}-shī. 1. T\acute{a}-fūng kō.
a. 2.
                Ta-fūng k'ì hî!—Yûn f \bar{\imath} yáng!
a. 5.
a. 16.
                Weī kiā haì-nüí hî!—Kweī kù hiāng!
               Gān tě màng sź hî!—Sheù sź fāng!
a. 24.
                                2. Chān-kūng kiŭ.
b. 5.
                                              Wí-yāng ts'iên tiến yữ lận kaū,
b. 9.
       Ts\check{o}-yé f\bar{u}ng-k'a\bar{\imath} lú ts\grave{\imath}ng-t'a\imath \imath l,
b. 23. Pîng-yâng kō-wù sīn chīng ch'ùng, Liên-waí chān-hân tsź miên-p'aû.
                               Wù-yên.
                                          3. Yiū-kú.
c. 9.
             Kwei-tsién süī í-tàng,
                                         Ch'ŭ mận kiaī yiù yîng;
C. 15.
             Từ wû waí-wữ kiên,
                                         Süí tsz yiū-kú ts'îng!
C. 25.
             Wî yû yé laî-kwó,
d. 5.
                                         Pŭ-chī chān ts'aù sāng!
d. 15.
             Ts īng-shān hwǔ ì-shù,
                                         Niaù-tsiŏ jaù shé mîng.
d. 25.
             Shî yù taú-jîn ngaù,
                                         Hwŏ sửî ts iaû-chè hîng.
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of his favours, and his approbation was held to be a great recommendation for honourable employment: (cf. Gonçalves' Arte China, Historical Extracts, No. 130.) This name is used therefore, by way of praise, and in honour of the person's reputation, to whom the letter is addressed. Such allusions in letters sometimes make the epistolary style difficult to be understood, and they always defy a literal rendering.

It-tsing (32. a. 15), 'remove-banner,' here means to 'change your residence.'

Kiāng-yiú (32. a. 17), 'the River's right,' is put for the city of Nan-king, which is situated on the right bank of the Great River, the Yâng-tsz ('son of the ocean').

The student will observe the peculiar terseness and formality of the phraseology in the epistolary style, which abounds also in allusions of various kinds. This does not imply, however, any great degree of learning in the writer, for the phrases suitable for fashionable letter-writing are set down in a book, which is known to all educated persons: (cf. Part II. p. 12. 26. Kiāng-hû chǐ-tǔ fān-yūn.)

Yīn-sién or hīn-sién (32. a. 23) 'joyful expectations.'

Ch'ā-ch'î (32. b. 4), 'to insert wings,' is a phrase peculiar to this style.

A letter sent with a present.

My good friend, you have been long absent, not the slightest sound of you has reached us. The navigation of the river has been much interrupted. How can it be said that we are living in the same country? But I think myself that we should forget the present aspect of our affairs, and not be again careful about stemming the torrent with vain regrets about those who have forgotten us. How much more when we know that a meeting time will arrive. not indeed in this world, but, we hope, in heaven. Let us each console ourselves thus, and use our best endeavours to this end, and it will be well. By this opportunity I beg to send you, by the bearer, a pocket-handkerchief and two small knives, things valueless in themselves: they are not worthy to be sent as presents, but they are foreign curiosities, and though insignificant things, they show my good feelings. I can well suppose that in viewing them you will pity the poor stupid little travellers. After due reverence to your lord, I hope you will remember me, and in your prayers bear me for a moment in mind. Respectfully at this distance I communicate, wishing you tranquillity and happiness, as well as present good fortune and perfect peace.

To be placed upon the desk of my honourable and worthy elder brother M. M.,

With the salutations of his humble servant M. M.

Translation of the Poetical Extracts (Ancient and Modern), v. native text, page 33.

Ancient poetry. 1. The song about the high wind. A high wind arises!—The clouds come flying along!

Majestic heaves the ocean!—We return to the old abode!

Peace we possess, and heroes!—to keep us on every side!

2. The ballad about the Spring-palace, by Wang Chang-ling.

Last night the peach tree by the well bloomed forth

In the temple before Wi-yang, when the moon was at her full,

Ping-yang danced and sang with ever-increasing grace,

Or without the porch-screen in cool of spring she wore a quilted robe.

Verses of five syllables. 3. The hermit, by Wei Ying-wü. The noble and the mean, although they differ in rank, Alike proceed from home, and have their plans for gain. Here by myself no outward things disturb me. Freely am I come to dwell in this retirement. The small rain by night falls all around, The grass buds forth in spring I know not how, The blue mountain, anon, gleams with the rising sun, The little birds keep singing as they fly about my cot, Oft-times I join the traveller on his way, Oft follow, perhaps, the woodman in his rounds,

shi-ti kw ⁶ an-shih. [33. e. 5.—33. n. 30.]
SHI-TI KW AN-SHIH. [35. e. 5.—35. II. 30.]
Tsź tāng ān kièn-liŭ, Shüî wei pŏ shi-yûng?
4. Kwó tsiù kiā.
Tsż-ji chàng hwān yìn, Fī kwān yàng síng lîng!
Yèn k'ān jîn tsín tsúi, Hô jín từ wei sīng?
Liŭ-shī.— Wù-yên liŭ. 5. Yiū-cheŭ yé yìn.
Liâng-fūng ch'üī yé-yù, Siaū-sĕ túng hân-lîn,
Chíng yiù kaū-tâng yén, Nâng wâng ch'î mú sīn,
Kiūn-chūng î kién wù, Sĕ-sháng chúng kiā-yīn:
Pù-tsở piên ch îng-tsiāng, Shuî chī gặn yú shīn.
6. Súng Hán-lîn Chāng Sž-mà Nân-haì lĕ-pī.
Kwán-mièn t'ung nân-kĭ, Wận-chẳng lờ sháng-t'aî,
Chaú ts'ûng sān tiến k'ü, Pī taú pẽ mân k'aĩ.
Yè-kwàn nûng hwā-fă, Chān-fân sí yù laî.
Pŭ-chī ts'āng haì-sháng, T'iēn-k'ièn kì-shî hwüî.
Tsí yên liŭ. 7. Yiū-cheū sīn-süí tsŏ.

Tsĭ yên liŭ. 7. Yiū-cheū

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e. 5.

e. 17.

e. 21. f. 1.

g. 2.

g. 14.

g. 24.

h. 4.

h. 14.

i. 2.

i. 13.

i. 23.

j. 3.

j. 13. k. 5.

K'ű-süí Kīng-nân meî sz sŭ, k. 15. $K\bar{\imath}n$ -niên $K\hat{\imath}$ -pě sử $j\hat{\imath}$ meî. k. 29. Kúng chī jîn-sź hô ch'âng-tíng, Tsiē hì niên-hwâ k'ú fǔ-laî. Piēn-chín-shú kō liên-jǐ túng, l. 13. Kĩng-ch'îng liaû-hò ch'ĕ mîng k'aī

Yaû-yaû sī hiáng Chàng-ān jǐ, l. 27. Yuén sháng nân-shān sheú yǐ peī.

Wù yên p'aî liŭ. m. 12. 8. Pě-tí hwaî kù. Jĭ-lŏ ts āng-kiàng wán, T'îng-jaû wán t'ù-fūng. n. r. Ch'îng lîn Pā-tsz kwŏ, Taî mữ Hán-wâng kūng. n. 11. Hwâng fữ jîng Cheữ tiến, Shīn shān sháng Yù kúng. n. 21.

Tsò-yiú (32. b. 9) must here mean literally 'on the right and left,' not 'attendants' or 'officers' as the phrase commonly signifies.

Hûng-piến (32. b. 21) is the regular phrase, in letters, for 'sending a letter.' Hûng means literally 'a swan or wild goose,' and is applied figuratively to a 'letter-carrier.' Pién commonly signifies 'convenience, opportunity.'

Fŭ wel kién-nién (32. c. 5) 'I bow and consider that you know my thoughts.' 'to mirror back, to reflect.'

Kī-kĕ (32. e. 8), lit. 'hunger and thirst,' expresses 'intense longing,' and here stands as a noun. It is qualified by sang-pring (32. e. 5) 'the growth of peace;' then the whole expression forms the object of the verb kiai 'to dissipate, to dissolve.'

Ts'ān-tsiù lán-wân (32. f. 14), lit. 'bottle-wine discourse-letters,' which has been translated, 'decant our wine and chat about literature,' might have been, 'take a glass of wine together and discuss the subject of letters.'

Ts'iën-li ngô-maû (32. l. 2), lit. 'thousand miles goose feathers,' appear to be put for 'foreign curiosities.'

The specimens of ancient and modern poetry, which are given on page 33, present in some parts even greater difficulties than the epistolary phraseology. The ancient poetry of the Chinese was irregular; each verse consisted of an equal number of syllables, and assimilated in rhyme and ending. But this was not always according to strict rule, or at equal distances. The metre of modern verse consists commonly of five (wù-yên shī,—33.

I am happy in my fortuneless and humble lot, Yet who can say that I mock at the world's glory?

4. The man too fond of wine, by Wang Tsi. This day till evening let us drink,

Nor care for our reasoning souls!

Our eyes see that all love wine,

Why then should we alone abstain?

Stanzas of eight verses.—Verses of five syllables.

5. The nocturnal banquet at Yiū-cheū, by Chāng Shwŏ. The cold blast blows, the night rain comes down, A desolate moaning shakes the wintry woods, But here in the high hall there is feasting, It makes me forget that my evening of life draws on. Among those soldiers it is meet to flourish the spear. In that gay crowd they repeat the flageolet's note: He who has not been the governor of a state Can never know the depth of favour given.

6. To the Academician Chāng Sź-mà going to Nan-haì to erect an epitaph. Chaplets and wreaths extend to the southern pole, Fair words are scattered on the elevated cross, Commands by three high officers are sent, An epitaph for the southern barbarians is revealed. On the hostleries of the wild thick flowers shoot forth, On the white sails in spring-tide the small rain falls. We know not when, from the vast ocean, The messengers of the throne may return. By Tu Fu.

Verses of seven syllables. 7. Made in $Yi\bar{u}$ -che \bar{u} at the new year. Last year the plum-tree blossoms in King of the south were like snow, This year the snow in Ki of the north was like the plum blossom. Thus may we perceive the inconstancy of human affairs. And we rejoice though the varying year goes and returns. The officers in the garrisons sing the live-long day. In the capital there are illuminations until the morning dawns. The distant west longs for the sun of Chang-an. Let us drink to the long life of the southern mountain.

Verses of five syllables. 8. The antiquity of $P\check{e}$ -ti, by $Chin\ Tsz$ -gang. The sun sinks into the vast river;—it is night;

The oars rest; and the dialogue turns on the customs of the land. The city $(P\check{e}$ -ti) looks down upon the kingdom of Pa-tsz. Its high towers eclipse the palaces of the Han kings, Its barren wastes were brought under culture by Cheu. Its great mountains do honour to the merits of Yu.

O. 1. Gân-hiuên ts ĩng-pĩ twán, Tí hiền pĩ liû t ung,
O. 11. Kù mũ sāng yân tsí, Kweĩ-fân chủ wú-chũng.
O. 21. Chuên t û k ú wû hiện, K s tsô hô-k iûng.

34. Sŭ-yû, Proverbs, v. native text, page 34.

1. Yi-kù liàng-tě. 2. Sāng-tiaû ts'ûng siaù-jeù. 3. Shán-fūng pŭa. 4. a. 16. k'ì lâng. 4. Tsaí-kiā kíng fú-mù, hô-pǐ yuèn shaū-hiāng? 5. Süîfũng taú t'ô, shán-shwüì t'ũi ch'uên. 6. Hò-sháng t'iēn-yiû. 7. Kŏb. 11. jîn tsź-saú mận-ts iên sử; mŏ-kwàn t ā-jîn wà-sháng shwāng. 8. Tĕ b. 25. miaú-wận wû-shi. 9. Jîn piên: jû-tsż! jû-tsż! Tien lì: wi-jên! wic. 12. jên! 10. Shû kaŭ ts'ien cháng, yĕ lŏ kweī kān. 11. Kiūn-tsz yĭ-yên, c. 25. kw aí-mà yǐ-piēn. 12. Kwāng-yîn sz tsién, jǐ-yǔ jû sō. 13. Kùngd. 10. kíng pǔ-jû ts'ûng-míng. 14. Pǔ-tāng shān, pǔ-chī t'iēn chī kaū; pǔd. 25. lín k'ī, pŭ-chī tí chī heú; pŭ-wận siēn-wâng chī weî yên, pŭ-chī e. 11. hiŏ-wận chī tá. 15. Kíng mîng, tsẽ ch'în-gaī pŭ-jèn, chí-mîng, tsẽ e. 25. siē-ŏ pŭ-sāng. 16. Shwii tī yù, t'iēn piēn yīng-kaū k'ò; shé, tī k'òtiaú; weî yiù jîn-sīn pŭ-k'ò liaú. T'iēn k'ò-tú, tí k'ò-liáng, weî yiù jîn-sīn pũ-k'ò fâng. Hwá-hù hwá-p'î, nân hwá-kiŭ; chī jîn mién f. 28. pă-chī sīn, tüí mién yữ yử, sīn kă tś ien shan. 17. Kwá-yên tsěkiaū, k'ò-ì wû hwüí-lín, k'ò-ì wû yiū-jŭ. 18. Yŭ kwá, tsīng-shîn shwâng; sź tō, hữ-k'í shwaī. 19. Ts'iû-chī múng shé, k'ŏ-chī múng h. 26. tsiāng. 20. Tsiù pừ tsửi jîn, jîn tsź-tsửi. 21. Hûng-yên pŏ míng. 22. Yi k'ĕ pŭ-fân ár chù. 23. Tsó yĭ-jĭ hô-sháng, chwáng yĭ-jĭ chûng. i. 8. 24. Yŭ mĭ tsĭ, dr tseù sử chūng. 25. Shứ taù wû yîn. 26. Kiūn-tsż i. 23. pŭ-nién kiú ŏ. 27. Tān-sz pŭ-ch'îng sién. 28. Yaú chī sīn-fŭ sź, tán j. 7.

c. 9) or seven syllables (tsi-yên shī, -33. k. 5), but there are verses of three, four, six, and nine syllables. These syllables are regulated by the tones of the words, which are formed into two classes, viz. the ping a 'even' and the tse'b 'deflected.' The ping tones are the upper and lower even tones (sháng-pîng and hiá-pîng); the tsĕ tones are the rising, the departing, and the entering tones (shang, k'ü, and ji). In verses of five syllables, the first and the third are subject to no rule, the second and fourth must vary between the ping and the tse tones; and in the second and third verses these two (2nd and 4th syllables) must be the converse of the first, and the fourth verse must be like the first in this respect. In verses of seven syllables, the first, third, and fifth are subject to no rule, the tones of the second and the fourth must vary, and that of the sixth must be like that of the second. In verses of five or seven syllables, three of the four final syllables must have the same class of termination and accent. As a general rule the final syllable of the third verse does not rhyme, and in the other verses rhyme is often dispensed with. The student can make out for himself a table of the metres by using an open circle (()) to represent the ping tones, and a black circle (3) for the tse tones. In some verses the third syllable in five-syllable verses and the fifth in seven-syllable verses are called the eye of the verse, which corresponds to the cæsura or the ictus in the poetry of European languages, and this 'eye' must always be a noun or a verb,-i. e. a word of full meaning (shī-tszc), not a particle, --- and it must either rhyme or alternate with the following verse. Above forty different

But the ancient green walls are cut down.

The dangerous places are made accessible.

The ancient trees grow to the limits of the clouds.

The returning sail shoots out from the midst of the mist.

The trace of that stream goes on without a limit.

The traveller sits gazing on the scene without being wearied.

Translation of Proverbs (Sŭ-yû), v. native text, page 34.

1. At one lift to obtain two. "To kill two birds with one stone." 2. The mulberry branch follows the (direction of the) small bend. "As the twig is bent the tree's inclined." 3. A fair wind raises no waves. 4. If at home you respect your parents, there will be no need of humbling yourself abroad (lit. 'going to a distance to burn incense'). 5. To sail with wind and tide. 6. To pour oil in the fire. "To add fuel to the flame." 7. Let every man sweep the snow from his own door-way, and not concern himself with the frost on other men's roofs. "Let every man mind his own business." 8. Virtue requires no colouring. 9. Man's convenience (says): thus and thus! Heaven's order (replies): not yet! not yet! "Man plans; but heaven disposes." 10. Though a tree be a thousand chang high, its leaves fall and return to the root. 11. One word to the superior man and one lash to the good horse (are enough). "A word to the wise is sufficient." 12. Time flies like an arrow: days and months like a weaver's shuttle. 13. To feel reverence is not so good as to give obedience. "Obedience is better than sacrifice." 14. If you do not ascend the mountain, you cannot know the height of heaven; if you descend not to the stream of the valley, you cannot know the depth of the earth. you do not listen to the wise words bequeathed by the ancient kings, you cannot know the greatness of true learning. 15. If the mirror be bright, then the dust will not defile it; if the intelligence be clean, then licentiousness will not grow up. 16. The fishes at the bottom of the stream, and the birds in the sides of heaven, may both be reached with the arrow and the hook; but man's heart is beyond conjecture. Heaven may be measured, and earth may be surveyed, but man's heart is without bounds. In drawing the tiger, you may paint his skin, but it is hard to depict his bones. In acquaintance with a man, you may know his face, but you cannot know his heart. Though you converse tête-à-tête, his heart is separated from you as by a thousand mountains. 17. If your words be few and your acquaintance select, there will be no need for repentance, sorrow, and shame. 18. If desires be few, good spirits will abound; if aims be many, cheerfulness will languish. 19. The prisoner dreams of pardon; the thirsty of a cordial. 20. The wine does not intoxicate the man; the man makes himself drunk. 21. A fair countenance is a poor inheritance. 22. A single guest does not require two lodgings. 23. To be one day a priest and the next a bell-ringer. 24. He wishes to hide his track, and yet he walks on the snow. 25. When the tree falls there is no shadow. 26. The superior man thinks not on old evil deeds. 27. A single thread is not enough to make a rope. 28. If you wish to know the thoughts which

t'îng k'eù-chūng yên. 29. Jŏ yaú twán tsiù-fă, sīng-yèn k'ān tsüí jîn. j. 22. 30. Tsž yū: "Jîn wû yuèn lú, pĭ yiù kín yiū." 31. Yǔ chī k'î kiūn, k. 6. siēn-shí k'î chîn; yŭ shǐ k'î-jîn, siēn-shí k'î-yiù; yǔ chī k'î-fú, siēn k. 20. shí k'î-tsz. 32. P'îng-fūng süī p'ó, kwŭ-kĕ yiû tsán; kiūn-tsz süī p'în, l. 7. lì-í châng tsaí. 33. Pě-yǔ î yū wū-ni, pǔ-nâng chīn-shě k'î-sě; kiūnl. 22. tsz chú yū chu-tí, pu-nâng jèn-lwán k'î-sīn; sūng-pě k'ò-ì naí sǔm. g. m. 26. shwāng, mîng-chí k'ò-ì shē kiēn-weî. 34. Jǐ-yǚ sūī mîng, pǔ-chaú fǔn. 12. pw an chī hiá: taū-kién süī kw aí, pŭ-chàn wû-tsüí chī jîn; fī tsaī n. 27. hứng hó, pừ jĩ shín-kiā chĩ mận. 35. Jîn-sāng, chí wí sāng; chí-sāng, 0. 14. jîn î laù; sīn chí yǐ-tsǐ sāng, pǔ-kiŏ wû-châng taú.

9. Extracts from the Ching-yīn tsüi-yaú, v. native text (lithographed), page 9.

a. 2. Tí-yǐ twán. Jǐ-châng.

Ts'ìng-tsaù k'ì-laî, kiaū haî-tsè-mận, saú-saú tí, kiaū-kiaū hwā, gaú a. 8. shwiì sì liên, p'aú wàn haù ch'â k'i-k'i. Mŭ-yiù sź tǐ shî-heú, k'āna. 23. k'ān shū, siè-siè tsz, sān-liàng-kó sz-wận pậng-yiù tsŏ-kó shī, hiá kó b. 14. weî-k'ī, kiaì-kiaì mận-ậr, tsiú k'ò-ì kwó-ti ji-tsz liaù. Taú-liaù hiác. 6. wù, lā kì pâng-kũng, shé kì t'iaû tsién, pá ché-shīn kīn-kwǔ, hwŏ-túng C. 23. hwŏ-túng. Jîn yiú yiù tsīng-shîn, yiù chàng-kíng; ché-tū shí haù d. 14. Pŭ-yaú wàng waî-t'eû t'ān-wûn, pŭ-yaú teú-k'i, pŭ-yaú tà-kiā e. 3. piēn-tsüì, pŭ-yaú tō-sź, pŭ-yaú naū-tsiù, pŭ-yaú kwó-kiā. Wù shwŏ е. 18. tǐ hwā yǐ-tièn ậr tsó-tí tū mǔ-yiù ā! Nì yaú t'íng-chŏ, pǔ-yaú wângf. 9. kí liaù ā!—Tièn kó tāng-ậr laî ā; hĕ-kù yìng-tsz, tsāng-mô ts iaû tǐ g. 2. kién nī? g. 20.

h. 2. Tí-ár twán. Tsě-kiaū.

h. 8. Yí-kó-jîn ch'ŭ-laî, siāng-yù pâng-yiù, tsùng-yaú taí shwâng yèn-h. 22. ts'ing, kién-liaù nà-siē chíng-kīng jîn, kiàng lì-î-tǐ, kiēn-hô-tǐ, laù-shi-i. 14. tǐ, tâng-tǐ kweī-kū-tǐ yiù liâng-sīn-tǐ, kién-kwó shí-mién-tǐ, yiù tsaî-j. 6. ts'îng-tǐ, yiù pàn-sź-tǐ, k'ò-ì kaú-tĕ-chú-tǐ, nì ts'aî haù t'ĭ-t'ā siāng-j. 24. yù, kān-chŏ t'ā tseù, kùng-kíng t'ā, pŭ-haù t'aì-mán t'ā; yiù-shén k. 14. siāng-kiuén, yiù-sī siāng-pāng; pién tá-kiā yiù yǐ liaù. Jŏ ts'iaû-

kinds of poems are enumerated, but many of these are inconsiderable in extent and importance. The best specimens are full of metaphorical and allegorical expressions, ancient and obsolete words, allusions to history and fable, with references to customs and opinions, known only to the learned. This renders Chinese poetry very difficult for foreigners to understand.

The specimens given on page 33 are, with the exception of the first, to be found in the $K\dot{u}$ T'áng-shī hồ-kiai, 'the poetry of the ancient T'ang (dynasty) explained,' a work in 5 vols. 12°.

Wi-yāng (33. b. 16) was the name of a royal palace in Ch'âng-ān a, during the Hân dynasty, which ended A. D. 260.

occupy a man's heart, just listen to the words of his mouth. 29. If you want to break through drunken habits, look at a drunken man when you are sober. 30. Confucius said: "If a man will not care for the future, he certainly will have present sorrow." 31. If you wish to know the character of a prince, first look at his ministers; if you would understand a man, first look at his friends; if you would know a father, first look at his son. 32. Though the screen be broken, its frame is still preserved; though the superior man be poor, propriety and rectitude still remain. 33. Though the white gem be cast into the dirt, its purity cannot be sullied: though the good man live in a vile place, it cannot taint and disorder his heart. The fir and the cypress can endure snow and frost; and bright wisdom can walk through difficulty and danger. 34. Though the sun and moon are bright, they cannot shine beneath an up-turned bowl: though the sword (of justice) be swift, it cannot decapitate the innocent, nor can unlooked-for calamity, with its evil genius, enter the dwelling of the prudent. 35. Man is born, but knowledge is not born (with him); when knowledge is acquired, man soon grows old; when his mind has obtained a fulness of knowledge, before he is aware, the great change comes over him.

Translation of the Extracts from the Ching- $y\bar{n}$ n tsüń-yaú, v. native text (lithographed), page 9.

First section. On every-day affairs.

Rise early and call the servant-boys to sweep the floor, to water the flowers, to warm water for washing the face, and to make a cup of good tea to drink. When you have nothing to do, look at a book, or write some characters, or with two or three literary friends make a verse (or two), or play a game at chess (lit. 'conquest' or 'siege'), to dissipate sadness, thus you will be able to pass the day. When noon is come, pull a few twangs of the bow, and shoot a few arrows; as for that body of muscle and bone of yours, exercise it well. Thus a man will get good spirits, and will grow strong: all these are good things to do. But don't go abroad hankering after amusement, don't create disturbances, don't fight and brawl, don't be a busy-body, don't be noisy over your wine, don't wander from house to house. What I have said is perfectly correct, there is no mistake in it. Do you listen and don't forget it.

Light the lamp and bring it here, it is as dark as midnight, how can I see?

The second section. On selecting acquaintances.

When a man goes out to hold intercourse with friends, he should carry a pair of eyes in his head; and when you see those who are men of rectitude, or those who speak with propriety and justice, the cordial and honest men, and those who understand customs, those who have a conscience, and those who have seen the world, those who have natural talent and good sense, on whom you may rely,—do you then seek their acquaintance, and walk in their footsteps, respect them and do not slight them; if you have any good project in hand, consult with them, and in matters of business mutually assist one another, thus both

kién-liaù nà-siē pǔ-haù jîn, yǐ tièn-ḍr pạn-sz, tū mǔ-yiù; yǐ pá
 kwāng-kwán tsüí, húng-p'ién jîn-kiā,

10. Extracts from the Ching-ȳn tsüi-yaú, v. native text (lithographed), page 10.

a. 2. yiú pǔ-haù pī-k'î, ts'iuên-kàn siē hwān-cháng tǐ sź, yiú pǔ-a. 16. tứng yèn, yiù pǔ-kú liên, yiú t'aù jîn hiên. Jîn-kiā mà t'ā, t'ā yè b. 7. pǔ-haí saū; ché-yáng tǐ jîn, ngò ts'iaû-kiên-liaù, tsiú naù-liaù t'ā, nì b. 23. ts'iēn-wán pǔ-yaú t'ǐ-t'ā tseù-lùng, t'ā tsiú kw'aì-p'iên nì-tǐ yîn-tsż c. 21. ts'iên: hwân pǔ tà-kìn, t'ā hwân yaú wú nì-tǐ sź, sāng-ch'ǔ hū-tō sź d. 13. laî. Yiù shímmô piên-î nī? Ts'ûng-kīn-ì-heú nì yaú tà chú-í, ts'aî e. 5. haù yā!

f. 2. Tí-sān twán. Tsă-hwá.

f. 8. Jîn tsüí yaú-kìn shí shườ-hwá. Nì ts iaû nà-siē yiù mîng-sẽ tǐ jîn, fān-waí pŭ-t'ûng, t'ā shwŏ-ch'ŭ ti hwá, tsūng-shí ch'ŭ-kīng ji-tièn, yiù f. 24. wận-yà, tsź pŭ-yúng shwŏ lŏ. T'ā tsiú sửi-k'eù shwŏ kū pá ts'în-ch'âng g. 15. tǐ hưá-ậr, yè kiŏ-tĕ tá-fāng, yiù t'ì-kiŭ,—pŭ-kiaū-ngaú, pŭ-hiá-tsŏ. h. 7. h. 24. Jîn-kiā t'ing-liaù, tsź-jên kw'ā-t'ā hwiii-shwŏ hwá liaù. i. 13. chíng-kīng hwá, kú-jên yaú-t'íng, tsiú-shí shí-tsīng-sháng, nà-siē hiêntsă jîn-tàng ti hwá, yè yaú fáng ch'âng-àr-tò t'íng-t'íng. Süî-jên pŭj. 3. pǐ hiờ t'ā, yè yaú chī-taú, kŏ-chú fūng-sǔ; tsāng-mô shí tsān-hwá, j. 19. ts ū-hwá, yà-hwá, niŏ-pŏ hwá, fúng-chīng jîn ti hwá, siaú má jîn ti k. 10. hwá; jîn-kiā shwŏ-ch'ŭ-laî, nì pŭ-tûng tǐ, tsiú ch'îng-liaù kó tsūl. 1. l. 16. t'iaû-tsž liaù.

11. Extract from the Sān-kwŏ chí, chap. I, v. native text (lithographed), page 11.

a. 2. Tî-yĭ hwüî.

a. 7. Yên t'aû-yuên haû-kĭ sān kĭ í.

b. 7. Chàn Hwâng-kīn yīng-hiûng sheù lǐ kūng.

c. 1. Hwá-shwờ t'iễn-hiá tá-shí; 'fān-kiù pǐ-hờ, hờ-kiù pǐ-fān.' Cheữ c. 16. mữ tsĩ-kwờ fān-tsāng, píng jĩ yữ Ts'în; kĩ Ts'în mĩ chĩ heá Ts'á Hán d. 7. fān-tsāng, yiú píng jĩ yữ Hán. Hán chaữ, tsź Kaữ-tsừ chùn pĕ-shê d. 22. ậr kĩ í, yĩ-t'úng t'iễn-hiá. Heá laî Kwāng-wú chững-hĩng, ch'uên e. 11. chí Hién-tí, sửí fān-weî Sān-kwờ. Ch'ữ k'í chí lwán chữ yiú, t'aì-ch'ì

Kwei-tsien (33. c. 15), 'the noble and the mean,' both have their plans of aggrandisement; the former at court, the latter in the market. The poet wishes to show that the noble man and the mean man are alike different from the ascetic, who alone can retire from the world and its projects for getting gain. He alone can enjoy the outward things,—the soft rain, the bright grass, the blue mountain, and the singing birds,—which arise without his arrangement and yield him pleasure.

parties will be profited. But you will see those bad men, who have not the slightest particle of good sense, a set of sharpers, who deceive people,

Translation of the Extracts from the Ching-yīn tsüń-yaú, v. native text (lithographed), page 10.

who are of a quarrelsome disposition, entirely taken up with questionable affairs,—men who will not take hints, and who have no regard for appearances, who draw down upon themselves the displeasure of others; and when they are scolded, they do not feel ashamed. When I see such men, I directly give them a scolding. You should on no account whatever have any thing to do with them. If you associate with them, they will swindle you out of your money: but that would be of little consequence, if they did not prejudice your affairs and produce a great deal of trouble. Then what benefit will there be in that? From the very first do you be decided, and then all will be well!

The third section. On miscellaneous phrases.

The most important thing for a man is to speak well. Now when you see men of note, different from the common herd, you will find that their language has a classic elegance about it, and an air of refinement, of which it is needless to speak. Even when they utter the first expression which comes to their lips in ordinary parlance, you may perceive a liberality of sentiment and a regularity about it,—it is neither haughty nor mean. When people hear them, they, of course, praise them highly, as being able to speak properly and classically. Assuredly you should listen to them. Then there is the language of the market-place and the well, and the talk of loungers and of various classes of men; you must stretch your ears to catch these; for although you need not learn them, you should know them, as well as the customs of every place; what is village talk, coarse language, elegant language, cruel, insulting language, the language of flattery, ridicule, abuse, &c., for when men utter such, and you do not understand, you will seem exactly like a country clown.

Translation of the Extract from the $S\bar{a}n$ -kwŏ chí, chap. I, v. native text (lithographed), page 11.

Chapter the first.

At the banquet in the peach-garden three brave men form a righteous league. By exterminating the Yellow-turbans the heroes raise their reputation.

It is a common saying with respect to the state of nations, that 'the long-divided must unite, the long-united must divide.' At the end of the Cheu dynasty the empire was divided into seven kingdoms; these contended together and were finally united in the Tsin dynasty; and after the extinction of the Tsin family, the houses of Ts'u and Han strove together and were at last merged in the Han dynasty. The universal dominion of the Han commenced with the Emperor Kau-tsu, who destroyed the white serpent and raised a body of patriot soldiers. Afterwards Kwang-wu arose as his successor, and he in turn transmitted the throne to Hien-ti. The power of the state was then divided, and became Three Kingdoms. If we proceed to investigate

f. 2. yū Hwân-Lîng, âr tí. Hwân-tí kín-kú shén-lüí, tsûng-sín hwán-kwān, f. 17. kǐ Hwân-tí p'âng. Lîng-tí tsi wei; Tá-tsiāng-kiūn, Teú-wù; T'ai-fú, Chín-fan, kúng-siāng fú-tsò. Shî yiù hwán-kwān Ts aû-tsi tàng lúngg. 7. g. 21. k'iuên; Teú-wù Chín-fān meû chū chī; kī-sź pŭ-mĭ, fàn weî sò haí; Chũng-kiuēn tsá tsà yú hûng. Kiến-nîng ậr-niên, sá-yữ, wáng-jĩ, Tí h. 12. i. 2. yú Wān-tĕ tién, fāng shīng tsó; tién-kŏ kw āng-fūng tseú-k'ì, chĕ-kién i. 17. yĭ-t'iaû ts'īng-shê, ts'ûng liûng-sháng fī tsiāng-hiá-laî, fān yū î-sháng. j. 8. Tí kīng taù, tsò-yiú kǐ kiú jǐ-kūng, pĕ-kwān k'ū pạn pĭ, sū-seù shê pŭkién-liaù. Hwŭ-jên tá-lüî tá yù, kiā ì pīng-pŏ, lŏ taú pwán-yé, fāngk. 1. k. 18. chì; hwaí k'iŏ fûng-ŭ wû-sú. Kién-nîng sź-niên ậr-yữ, Lŏ-yâng tí l. 8. chín, yiú haì-shwüì fán-yǐ, yuên-haì kū-mîn, tsín p'ì tá láng kiuèn jǐ l. 24. haì ch \bar{u} ng.

12. Extract from the Sān-kwŏ chí, v. native text (lithographed), page 12.

a. I. Shî Kü-lu kiún yiù hiūng-tí sān-jîn; yǐ mîng, Chāng-kiŏ; yǐ mîng, a. 17. Chāng-paù; yǐ mîng, Chāng-liâng. Nà Chāng-kiŏ pàn-shí kó pǔ-tí Siú-ts'aî, yīn ji-shān ts'aì-yŏ; yú yǐ laù-jîn, pĭ-yèn tûng-yên, sheù b. 5. chỉ lî-cháng, hwán Kiổ chí yĩ túng chũng, ì t'iēn-shū sãn kiuèn sheú b. 22. chī, yū: "Tsz mîng, 'T'aí-pîng yaú-shŭ,' jù tĕ chī, tāng taí T'iēn c. 11. sivēn hwá p'ù kiú shí-jîn, jŏ mîng í-sīn, pĭ hú gŏ paū." Kiŏ paì, C. 25. wặn síng mîng. Laù-jîn yữ: "Wù naì Nân-hwâ laù-siēn yè." Yênd. 16. e. 5. kĭ hwá chín-ts'īng-fūng ậr k'ű. Tsíng yǔ: "Tsĕ-pīng chúng, ngò-pīng kwá, mîng-kūng î tsŏ sǔ е. 13. chaū-kiūn ying-ti." Liû-yên jên k'î shườ, süî tsi ch'ŭ pàng, chaū-mú f. 1. f. 16. í-pīng. Pàng-wận hîng taú Chŏ-hiến yìn ch'ữ Chŏ-hiến chũng yǐ-kố yīng-hiûng. Nà jîn pǔ shīn haú tǔ-shū, sìng kwān-hô, kwá yên yû, g. 6. g. 21. hì-nú pừ hîng yū sĕ, sú yiù tá chí, chuēn haú kǐ-kiaū t'iēn-hiá haû-kǐ, h. 14. sāng-tě shīn-chàng pă-chĕ, liàng-àr chüî-kiēn, shwāng-sheù kwó yū sǐ,

 $K\tilde{\imath}$ - $p\check{\varepsilon}$ (33. k. 24) here means $Yi\tilde{u}$ -che \tilde{u} itself, which was the name of Shing-king a, (Moukden, the capital of Manchuria,) under the $H\acute{a}n$ dynasty.

The city of Pĕ-ti (33. m. 17) was in Kwei-cheū fú.

The lithographed pages (9—14) which follow here, were printed in London from the author's handwriting, but they are not so satisfactory as the 34 pages of letter-press which were done in Hongkong. This accounts for the absence of pages 1—8, page 9 having been printed first to suit the convenience of pupils who did not need the earlier pages, which were extracts from the Ancient Classics &c., and which were subsequently printed in Hongkong. The extracts from the Ching-yīn tsūi-yaū are likely to prove very serviceable to the student, they present him with a good many expressions in the Peking dialect, though not of the extreme kind, and they would easily pass current in the southern provinces. Among the general characteristics of the Peking dialect is the frequent use of the perfect particle liaū b and the formative particle ârc. There is a redundancy of expression, and, in pronunciation, an uncommon sharpness of utterance in the case of all letters which admit it (ki, tsi, chi, si, hi).

the cause of this revolution, we shall find that it began with the two Emperors Hwan and Ling. When the Emperor Hwan died, Ling came to the throne. The marshal Teu-wu and the guardian Chin-fan became coadjutors in the government. Now it happened that when the eunuch Ts'au-ts' and his party were intriguing for power, Teu-wu and Chin-fan formed a counter-plot to exterminate them; but the scheme was discovered, and turned out injurious to themselves; and the eunuchs from this time increased in audacity.

On the 15th day of the 4th month of the 2nd year, Kien-ning ('tranquillity established') the Emperor proceeded to the Hall of Audience, and just as he was ascending the throne, a violent wind suddenly rushed from a corner of the Hall, and what should they see but a great green snake, seeming to fly down from the beam above, which coiled itself up upon the imperial seat. The Emperor fell down in terror, but the attendants quickly rescued him and carried him into the palace. The mandarins, one and all, hastened away; and, in a moment, the serpent itself vanished. On a sudden it began to thunder loud and to rain heavily, accompanied with hail stones. This continued until midnight, and laid in ruins an immense number of dwellings.

In the 2nd month of the 4th year of this same Emperor, an earthquake was felt in $L\ddot{o}$ -yang, the sea inundated the lands, and the inhabitants of the coasts were washed away.

Translation of the Extract from the Sān-kwŏ chí, v. native text (lithographed), page 12.

At this time there lived in the district of Kü-lŭ three brothers, named Chang-kiŏ, Chang-pau, and Chang-liang. Now this Chang-kiŏ did not take the degree of Siu-tsai (B. A.), but proceeded to the hills to gather medicinal herbs. There he met one day an aged man with a fair and youthful countenance, who held in his hand a staff of cane. He called Kiŏ into a cave, and gave him three sacred volumes, saying: "These are called, 'The Arts necessary for producing Peace.' Take them, and in the name of Heaven proclaim the doctrine of reform, that the world may be saved. And should contrary thoughts arise in your mind, you will suffer the reward of the wicked." Kiŏ bowed and enquired his name and surname. The old man said: "I am the aged genius of Nan-hwa;" and having uttered these words he vanished into thin air and was gone. * * * *

Tsing said: "The rebel soldiers are many, our soldiers are few; your Excellency should at once raise an army to oppose the enemy." Liu-yen acquiesced in this advice, and immediately issued a placard, calling upon patriots to enlist. This document reached the town of Chŏ, and a brave man of the place responded to the call. He was not much of a scholar, but his disposition was magnanimous and kind, and his words were few; the feelings of anger and pleasure were rarely visible in his countenance, and he was a man of a strong will. He loved to form friendships with the brave men of the empire. His height was eight chĕ (near seven feet); his two ears hung down on his shoulders; his hands reached down to his knees; he was able to

i. 4. mữ nâng tsắ kứ k'î àr; miến jữ kwán-yử, shận jữ t'ữ chĩ; Chữngi. 19. shān Tsíng wâng Liữ shíng chĩ heữ, Hán Kìng-tí Kiŏ-hiá hiuên sān;

j. 8. síng Liû, mîng Peí, tsź Hiuên-tě.

j. 17. Tăng-ji kiến-liaù pàng-wận, kai-jên ch'âng-t'án, sửi-heá yǐ-jîn lík. 7. shīng yên yǔ: "Tá-cháng-fū pǔ-yù kwŏ-kiā ch'ŭ-lǐ, hô-kú ch'âng-

k. 22. t'án?" Hiuên-tẽ hwuî shí k'î jîn, shīn pă-chĕ, shīng jû kú-liû, shí jû

l. 13. pàn-mà. Hiuên-tĕ kiến t'ā hîng-maú í-châng, wặn k'î síng-mîng.

13. Extract from the Sān-kwŏ chi continued, v. native text (lithographed), page 13.

a. 1. K'î-jîn yŭ: "Meŭ Síng Chāng, mîng Fī, tsź Yǐ-tǐ. Shí kứ Chŏ-a. 15. kiún, p'ŏ yiù chwāng-t'ièn, maí-tsiù t'û-chū, chuēn haú kǐ-kiaū t'ièn-

b. 5. hiá haû-kǐ; kiă-ts'aî kién kūng k'án pàng ậr t'án, kú-tsz siāng-wán."

b. 20. Hiuên-tế yữ: "Ngò pặn Hán-shi tsũng-tsĩn, síng Liû, mîng Peí;

c. 8. kīn wận Hwâng-kīn ch'āng-lwán, yiù chí yữ p'ó-tsẽ gān-mîn. Hạn lĩ

c. 23. pŭ-ndng! Kú ch'ang-t'an àr." Fī yŭ: "Ngò p'ŏ yiù tsz-ts'aî, tāng

d. 12. chaū-mú hiāng-yùng, yù kūng t'âng kù tá-sź. Jû-hô?" Hiuên-tĕ

e. 1. shīn-hì, sửi yừ t'ûng ji ts'ān-tién chũng yìn-tsiù. Chíng yìn kiēn,

e. 15. kiến yĩ tá Hán, từ ĩ-chỗ yĩ liàng chẽ-tsz, taú tiến mận-sheù hiĕ-liaù.

f. 6. It tiến tsố-hiá piến hwán tsiù-paù: "Kw'at chīn-tsiù-lat k'ī, ngò tat-f. 21. kàn ji-ch'tng-k'ú t'eú-kiūn."

g. 2. Hiuên-tě k'án k'î jîn, siāng-maú t'âng-t'âng, weī-fūng pín-pín, g. 15. tsiú yaū t'ā t'ûng tsó, t'aū k'î síng mîng. K'î jîn yǔ: "Wù síng

h. 4. Kwān, mîng Yù, tst Sheú-ch'ang, heú kaī Yûn-ch'ang, Hô-tũng Kiaì

h. 17. liáng jîn yè. Yīn pùn-chú shí-haû, ì-shí lîng jîn, peî wù shă-liaù,
i. 8. t'aû nân Kiāng-Hû wù-lǔ niên ì. Kīn wûn ts² chú, chaū-kiūn p'ô-

i. 23. tsĕ, tĭ-laî yîng-mú." Hiuên-tĕ süî ì kì chí kaú-chī. Yûn-ch'ûng tá-hì,

j. 15. t'ûng taú Chāng-fī chwāng sháng, kúng-ì tú-sz. Fī yǔ: "Ngò

k. 4. chwāng heú yiù t'aứ-yuên, hwá-k'a $\bar{\imath}$ chíng shíng, mîng-j $\check{\imath}$ tāng y \bar{u}

k. 16. yuên chūng tsé kaú t'iēn-tí; ngò sān-jîn kǐ-weî hiūng-tí, hiĕ lǐ t'ûng-

1. 7. sīn, jên-heú k'ò t'û tá-sź." Hiuên-tĕ, yûn-ch'ang tsî-shīng ying yü:

l. 22. "Jû-tsz shín haù."

The passages given on pages 11—13 are from the $S\bar{a}n\text{-}kv\delta$, with which the student is already acquainted (v. Chrest. pp. 17—20). The 'Yellow-turbans' ($Hwdng\text{-}k\bar{\imath}n$, 11. b. 8) were rebels under the leadership of $Ch\bar{a}ng\text{-}ki\delta$ (12. a. 13), who, besides being a general, pretended to perform cures by charms and exorcism. He raised an immense army, which he organized and allotted to subordinate generals. At the close of the Hdn dynasty (A. D. 226), after the reign of the last Emperor Hien-ti (11. e. 12), the division of the country into three kingdoms took place. The two Emperors Hwdn and Ling (11. f. 3, 4) were weak and lax in their government, and this brought on a rebellion, which assumed larger proportions under $T\bar{\imath}ng\text{-}ch\delta$, a man of great strength and military ability. His career of cruelty, during which he slaughtered vast numbers of his enemies, was brought to an early close, for $L\ddot{\imath}-pu$ (v. 20. d. 5, 7) destroyed him and all his family. The Imperialist cause was upheld by the generals $L\ddot{\imath}-pi$ (13. c. 5, 7) a mat-seller, $Kwan\text{-}y\bar{\imath}$ (13. h. 4, 6) a seller of sour-curds, and $Ch\bar{\imath}ng\text{-}f\bar{\imath}$ (13. j. 17) a pork-butcher. These were the three brave

see his own ears; his face was like the jewel on a crown; and his lips were ruddy like rubies. He was a descendant of the ninth generation from Kingti of the Han dynasty; his clan name was Liu, his surname Pei, and his title was Hiuen-tě.

When he saw the above-mentioned placard, he heaved a deep sigh, and immediately behind him a man exclaimed with a loud voice: "When a fine fellow does not exert his strength for his country, why does he sigh so deeply?" Hiven-tě turned round and beheld a man about seven feet high, having a voice like thunder, and a physique like that of a vigorous charger. When Hiven-tě saw this extraordinary figure, he enquired his name and surname.

Translation of the Extract from the Sān-kwŏ chí continued, v. native text (lithographed), page 13.

The man replied: "My name is Chang, my surname Fī, and my title Yī-tĕ. For generations we have dwelt in this district of Cho, and we have a small landed property here. I deal in wine and slaughter pigs. I am fond of forming the acquaintance of the brave men of the empire. When I saw you just now looking at the placard and sighing, I could not help speaking to you." Hiuentě said: "I am descended from the house of Han, my name is Liu and my surname Pei. When I lately heard that the Yellow-turbans were in rebellion, the wish arose in my mind to break their power and to give peace to the people. Would that my strength were adequate to it! It was for this reason that I sighed." Fī replied: "I have some small means, let us call out our brave countrymen, and with you, Sir, begin to put the great affair into execution, what do you think of that?" Hiuen-te was much pleased, and they forthwith entered the village inn to take some wine. Just as they were drinking, they saw a fine son of Han (a Chinaman), pushing along a handcart, who, coming up, stopped at the door of the inn. Having entered the inn, he sat down and called to the waiter: "Pour out quickly some wine for me to drink, I am in haste to reach the city to join the army." Hiuentě, seeing that the man had a noble aspect and a dignified bearing, invited him to join them, and then enquired his name and surname. The man replied: "My name is Kwan, my surname Yu, and my title Sheu-ch'ang, which has been altered to Yün-ch'ang. I am a native of Kiai-liang in Hotung. When a man of influence in my native place, relying on his power, had insulted and oppressed the people, I killed him; and, having escaped with difficulty, for five or six years I have been in the River and Lake provinces. Having recently heard in this place that an army is being raised to subdue the rebels, I am going (to the city) on purpose to enlist." Hiven-tě at once told him of his own project. Yün-ch'ang was much pleased, and they went together to Chang- $f\bar{i}$'s farm to consult about the matter. $F\bar{i}$ said: "At the back of my farm there is a peach garden, the flowers are just in full bloom. Let us to-morrow in that garden sacrifice to Heaven and Earth, and we three men will unite as brethren, with all our hearts, and then we may plan about this great matter." Hiven-te and Yün-ch'ang with one voice exclaimed: "That is very good."

a. 2.

g. 2.

14. From Æsop's Fables, by Robert Thom, Esq., v. native text (lithographed), page 14.

Ch'aî p'āng yâng.

Pw'ân-kù ts'ù, niaù-sheú kiaī nâng yên. Yi-ji ch'aî yù yâng, t'ûng a. 6. kiên yìn-shwiiì; ch'aî yữ p'āng k'î yâng; tsź-nién wû ì tsiè ts'ź, naì a. 20. kiãng tsẽ chī yū: "Jû hwận-chǔ tsż shwii, shí laù-fū pǔ-nâng yìn, b. 10. Yâng tüí yữ: "Tá-wâng tsaí sháng liû, yâng tsaí hiá liû; b. 25. sử chữ wû gaĩ." Ch'aî fữ tsĩ yữ: "Jû k'ứ-niên meữ-ji ch'ữ-yên tĕ-C. 14. tsüí yū ngò, yǐ kaī shă." Yâng yǔ: "Tá wâng wú ì; k'ú niên meūd. 5. ji yang wi ch'ŭ-shi, gān-nang tě-tsüí tá-wang?" Ch'aî tsi pién-siū weî d. 20. nú, tsĩ chĩ yữ: "Jû chĩ fú-mù tĕ-tsüí yū ngò, yĩ jû chĩ tsüí yè." Süí е. 11. p'āng chī. Yên yûn: "Yŭ kiā chī tsüí, hô hwán wû ts'â?" Tsǐ tsà f. 4. f. 18. chī wei yè.

 $\acute{A}r$ sh \grave{u} .

Ts ān-lo chūng yiù ár shù, pàn-shǔ tsīn-î, yǐ tsaí kīng-sī kwó-hwo. g. 5. Hwă yĭ-jĩ laî ts'ān t'án-kiá, ts'ān-shù liû âr kw'àn chĩ. Sò ch'ă chĩ g. 21. shǐ ts ū-cheú pǔ-kān. Kīng-shù yǔ: "Jù kú wû hwû, ŭ-shǐ wû meíh. 12. wí, hô-pừ sửí ngò taứ kīng, yǐ-kién shí-mién?" Ts ān-shù hīn-jên, i. 3. t'ûng wàng kĩ taú kīng, kwò-jên shĩ-yíng kiaī í yĩ-jĩ ậr shữ t'ûng i. 18. cho mě! Laî yĭ-hiûng kiuèn, kì tsiāng ts ān-shù hwo k'ú! Ts ān-shù j. 9. tá hiaî, wận yữ: "Tsz chữ ch'âng yiù tsz hai hû?" Yữ: "Jên." j. 23. $Ts^*\bar{a}n$ -shù $ts^*\hat{z}$, $y\ddot{u}$: " $F\bar{\imath}$ ng \hat{c} $h\bar{\imath}$ $f\check{u}$ $y\acute{e}$, $y\ddot{u}$ $k^*\hat{\imath}$ $p\hat{a}ng$ - $hw\hat{a}ng$ $\hat{q}r$ $h\bar{a}n$ - $ch\hat{\imath}$; k. 11. shŭ jo gān-tsing @r tsaū-kang?" Sử yûn: "Nîng shi kai meî-chu, l. 2. mŏ-shĭ ts'iû meî-fân!" Tsĭ tsz chī wei yè! l. 16.

men who are mentioned in the opening stanza ($Ha\hat{u}$ - $k\check{t}$ $s\bar{a}n$, 11. a. 10). They united with a solemn oath to retrieve the fortunes of the $H\hat{a}n$ family. They associated with themselves $L\hat{u}$ - $p\bar{u}$, $K\bar{u}ng$ - $m\hat{t}ng$, and $Yu\hat{e}n$ - $sha\bar{u}$, and finally established the kingdom of $Sh\check{u}$ and Another famous general, $Tsa\bar{u}$ - $tsa\bar{u}$, succeeded in forming the kingdom of $We\hat{t}$ b, and $S\bar{a}n$ - $kiu\hat{e}n$ raised for himself the kingdom of $W\hat{u}$ c: these were the $S\bar{a}n$ - $kv\check{v}$, 'the Three Kingdoms,' which form the subject of this, the best historical romance of the Chinese.

 Pw^*an-ku (14. a. 6) is a mythical personage, who is described in Chinese books as the first man, who, though not the creator of the world, had the Herculean task allotted to him of bringing the chaos into a cosmos, of making order and beauty out of confusion. The Rationalists of China, commonly called Tauists, have proceeded to particularise the acts of this individual; they describe his work of splitting the heavens and chiselling the rocks. His efforts, they say, were continued eighteen thousand years. On his death his head became a mountain, his breath the winds, and his voice thunder, with other ridiculous stories, similar however to the Scandinavian myths on this subject. For a long account of this myth see Dr. Williams' $Middle\ Kingdom$, vol. VI. p. 196, where a curious picture is given of Pw^*an-ku at work.

·蜀 · 委 · 。 吳

Translation of Esop's Fables, by Robert Thom, Esq., v. native text (lithographed), page 14.

The wolf devours the sheep.

In the primitive times of Pwan-ku, when all the birds and beasts could speak, one day a wolf and a sheep were drinking at the same stream. The wolf wished to devour the sheep, but, thinking within himself that he had no excuse, he reproached him sternly and said: "You are making this water muddy, so that I, your superior, cannot drink, I must kill you." The sheep replied: "Your Honour is at the upper part of the stream, and I am at the lower; though the water is muddy it is no obstacle to your drinking." The wolf again reproached him and said: "Last year on a particular day you said something offensive against me; I ought to kill you." The sheep said: "Your Honour is under a mistake, for last year on that particular day I was not born. How could I offend against Your Honour?" The wolf then, instead of being ashamed, became angry, and, reproving him, said: "Your parents offended against me, and it is your fault too," and forthwith devoured him. The proverb says: "If you want to impute a crime to any one, why distress yourself at the want of an excuse?" This is what is meant.

The two mice.

In a retired village were two mice, who were both relatives and friends. One of them went to live in the city, and one day unexpectedly she came to the village to visit her old friend. The country mouse begged to be allowed to entertain her. But the provisions which she brought out were coarse and foul, and were not good enough for the city mouse, who said: "Your abode is not very beautiful, and your household food is neither fine nor savoury, why not come with me to the city and take a look at the world?" The village mouse gladly went with her, and on arriving at the city she found certainly that the food was very different. But one day, as the two mice were together drinking, a fierce dog suddenly made his appearance, and was nearly seizing upon the country mouse and carrying her off. The country mouse, in great alarm, enquired, saying: "Are these evils always here?" Her friend replied: "Yes." Then the country mouse begged to be excused, and said: "This is no happiness to me, with all this terror and good victuals. There is nothing like peace and coarse husks." The common saying is: "It is better to drink rice-water with pleasant feelings, than to eat the rice that produces sorrow *." is just what it means.

^{*} Lit. 'opening eye-brow rice-water' than 'sorrowing eye-brow rice.'



.9. Extracts tronv the Ching-yuv tsiii-yau. 若着世些 忘開是髂作泡 瞧他面正第記酒好弓個碗第 見走的經二了不事射詩好一 了恭有人。段阿。要不幾下茶段 那敬才講擇 過要條個吃日 吃他情禮交點家。往箭。圍吃。常 不不的義 个我外把棋没 好好有的。一灯説頭這解有清 人。总本謙個兒的貪身解事早 一慢事和人來話。點問的是 點他的的出阿一不骨兒時來 兒有可老來黑點要活就候叫 本善以實相鼓兒掏動可看 事相靠的與影錯氣活以看子 后都勸。得董朋子的要動。過書們。 没有住得友怎都打人得寫

有。事的。規總麼沒架又日寫

把帮。幾的帶得阿嘴精了三

哄有相的見 着事勁千文

jùhyte

嘴家他心睛

騎益與。見了

| ki

一相你短要瞧有辯有子字地

光便好有雙見你不神到兩港

根大替良眼呢。要要又了個花

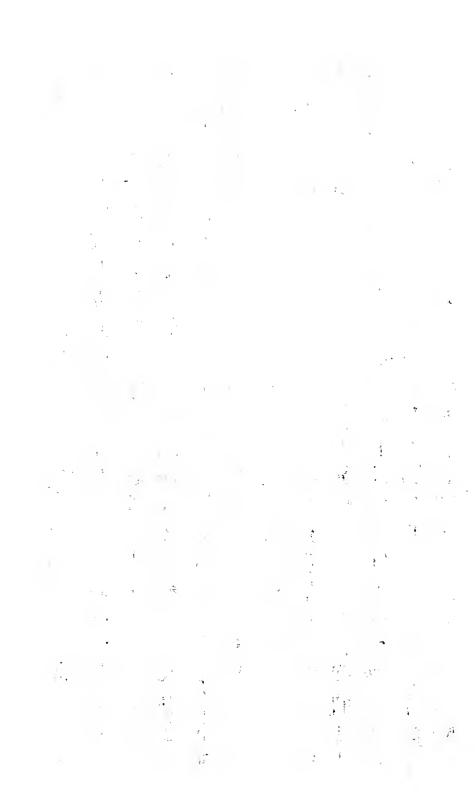
人了。跟過那 要要都幾灰臉

聽多長下

不不這拉朋洗

斯

水



Extracts from the Ching-ym-tsuú-yaú. 話。各些聽口不 打他要人家。 人處閒了。說同。第主還替家又 家風雜自句他三意要他罵不 說俗人然把說段總快走他好 日忠等跨尋出雜好你攏他脾 來麼的他常的話阿。的阿也氣。 你是話會的話。 事你不全 不村也說話總人 生若害幹 董話要話兒是最 出替臊些 响得粗放了也出要 許他這混 多走樣賬 就話。長然覺經緊 事攏的的 成雅耳而得入是 了話职正大典説 來他人事 個虐聽經方有話。 有就我又 6 超薄聽話有文你 甚拐熊不 條話雖固體雅縣 麼騙見董 子奉然然局。氣。那 便你了眼。 了承不要不自此 宜的就又 人必聽驕不有 呢銀惱不 從子了顧 的學就傲用名 話。他是不說色 今錢他臉 笑也市下路的 以還你又 後、不干討 罵要并作。他人。 人知上。人就分 你打萬人 的道那家隨外 要緊。不嫌。 $d \circ b \circ a$

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Extract from the San-kwo-chi. Chap. 1. 四見將帝謀將始統秦話 年了下御誅軍於天滅説 第 忽來。温之竇桓下。之天 月然蟠德機武靈後後下 回 大于殿事太二來楚大 洛 陽雷椅方不傳帝光漢勢 地大上。陛密陳桓武分分斬宴震雨。帝座。反蕃。帝中争久黄桃 又加驚殿為共禁興又必中國 "海以倒角所相錮傳并合英豪 水冰左狂害輔善至入合雄傑 泛雹右風中佐類獻于久首三 溢落急驟涓時崇帝漢必立結 沿到救起自有信遂漢分功義 阿海半入只此宦宦分朝周 居夜宫見愈官官爲自末 民方百一横曹及三高七 盡止官條建節桓國祖國 被壞俱大寧等帝推斬分 10大却奔青二弄崩 其白爭 浪房避蛇年權靈致蛇并 捲屋須從四寶帝亂而入 入無叟梁月武即之起于 海數。蛇上望陳位。由、義。秦 中建不飛日蕃大殆一及 i w g f e d o b a



人。後帝膝有中應也救洞不應 身一関目大一敵言世中、弟郡 八人下能志箇劉記人以秀有 尺屬玄自專英馬化若天才兄 聲聲孫。顧好雄然陣萌書因弟 若言姓其結那其清異三入三 巨目。劉耳。交人說風心。卷山人。 四雷。大名面天下随而必授採一 勢大倫如下甚即去獲之藥名 如夫字冠豪好出〇惡曰遇張 奔不玄玉。傑讀榜請報此一 馬與德唇生書相曰用名老 5玄國 0 若得性募賊拜太人。名 德家○塗身寬義兵問平碧張 見出當脂。長和兵。衆姓要眼寶。

20 貌故了靖两語行寡人得手張

異長榜王月喜到明曰之。執

常嘆文劉垂怒派公吾當藜

j i h g f e d

問玄慨勝肩不縣宜乃代杖張 其德然之雙形引作南天喚 25姓 里 長後。手於 出速 華 宣 角 本

他力。日中八寡榜我名。術童

形何見山尺言文兵老汝顏名

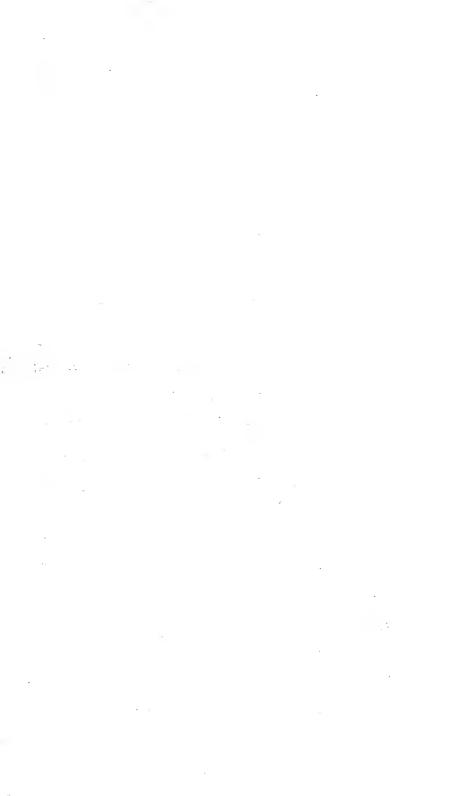
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continued from the San-kwo-chi. 13 爲曰應勢曰軍。店甚長室好名 兄我募凌吾玄門喜嘆宗 弟。莊玄人。姓德首遂耳。親交人 協後德被闊看歇與飛姓天 力有遂吾名其了。同只劉。下 同桃以殺羽。人。入入吾名豪姓 心。国己了。字相店村頗脩傑張 然花志逃壽貌坐店有今恰名 後開告難長堂下。中資開總飛。 可正之。江後堂便飲財、黄見字 圖盛雲湖改威喚酒當中公翼 大明長五雲風酒正召倡看德。 事。日大六長。凛保飲募亂。榜世 玄當喜。年河凛。快問。鄉有而居 德於同矣。東就斟見勇。志嘆。涿 雲園到今解邀酒一與欲故郡。 長中張聞良他來大公破此頗 齊祭飛此人同吃。漢同賊相有 聲告莊處也。坐。我推舉安問。莊 20 應天上招因叩待著大民玄 日、地共軍本其趕一 事恨德 如我議破處姓入輌 如力目 此三大贼。勢名城車何不我 甚人事。特豪。其去子玄 楮 能。本 86 好結飛來倚人投到德故漢

From Asop's Fables by Robert Thom, Esq. 用 無探 罪 能日殺其 熟此 美舊 二 也得出 羊羊。豺 異 味 遂罪言 村 鼠 自烹 對 常 何鼠意大得曰 念羊 静有日 不留村之。王。罪大 銋 隨而落諺針於王以盤 而此 糟害鼠我敖中云则我。在措 到之有欲變亦上 平同 辞 曰 酌 京所二加羞該流。 乃 然喜 一出鼠之爲殺羊 強 見之本罪怒羊在責 来 鼠一世良屬何責曰下之能 面粗親患之大流曰言。 辭雄 眉 回。 村臭誼無日王雖 汝 粥非幾鼠不一辭汝悞濁 混日 莫我将欣堪在即之矣。無 濁射 村然京京此父去碍。此與 愁福鼠同鼠師之母年豹 水羊 眉也 櫻往 回 過 謂 得 某復 使 同 飯與 去及汝活 也。罪日、責 老澗 村到 居忽 於 日 羊 夫飲 此榜鼠京 無一 我未汝 不水 之惶大 果華日 亦 出去能舒 謂而 琴然屋 來 汝世。年 飲欲 問食食村 办甘 之安某該烹 li $I\nu$ \dot{v} f e \mathcal{G} d



慎涉泥友.醒樹人無可水厚.光人稅.俗 家艱不欲眼倒自悔防底不陰便順語 之危。能知看無醉。吝.畫魚.聞似如水〇 門。○ 沾其醉陰紅可虎天先箭、比推 ○日溼发人,君顏以畫邊王日如船。畢 人月其先子子薄無皮鷹之月此火雨 生雖色視日、不命。憂難高遺如天上得。 智明、君其人念一辱。畫可言、梭理添桑 未不子子。無舊客愁骨射、不恭未油條 生、照處屏遠惡。不寡知低知敬然各從的 智覆於風慮單煩精人可學不未人小 生盤濁雖必絲二神知釣問如然。自揉。 人之地破有不主。爽面惟之從樹掃順 易下不骨近成做思不有大。命。高門風 老.刀能格憂。線。一多知人鏡〇千前不 心劍染猶欲要日血心心明不丈雪起 智雖亂存知知和氣對不則登葉莫浪。 一快、其君其心尚衰。面可塵山落管在 切不心子君腹撞囚與料。埃不歸他家 生斬松雖先事一之語天不知根。人敬[27 不無相貧視但日夢心可染天君瓦父 覺罪可禮其聽鐘。赦、隔度、智之子上母. 無之以義臣。口欲渴千地明高一霜。何 常人。耐常欲中滅之山可則不言、德必 到。非雪在。識言。迹夢寡量、邪臨快妙遠 〇災霜白其若而漿膏惟惡谿馬文燒 横明玉人要走酒擇有不不一無香 禍智移先斷雪不交人生知鞭。色。隨

風

到

不可於視酒中。醉可心,地

入以汚其法 人以不 之

巖日長人 蠻 遲 眼隨此外方。 懸落安事 開。送暮律看樵幽春○古青滄日.何 野翰心。詩人者居寒 詩 壁江願嘗 館林軍一盡行情.賜 斷、晚、上定、七濃張中五醉自微錦春大。 地停南且言花司宜言何當雨袍。宮風 險 橈 山 喜 律・發. 馬 劍 律・忍 安 夜 ○ 曲・歌。 碧問壽年 春南舞 獨塞來 流土一華幽帆海塞幽為劣。過五昨大 通。風、杯。去州細勒上州醒。誰不言。夜風 10 際.國.律。戍去滄通作風 ○青貴桃楊。□5 歸臺 歌歲海南邊吹 山賤未威 帆沒白連荆上極城夜 過忽雖央加 出漢帝日南天文縣雨 酒已異前海 霧王懷動梅遺章誰蕭 家.曙.等.殿內 鳥出月兮 20 中。宮。古。京 似 幾 落 知 瑟 此雀門輪歸 川荒 城雪時上風動 途服 燎今囘。台。遇寒 日繞皆高。故 去仍 火年〇韶深。林。 長舍有平郷。 無周 徹薊 從○正 昏鳴。營.陽安 限、甸. 明北 三 有 飲時獨歌得 25

lkjihgf e d

兼恨

某 兄 大 人 文 几

期而努不良 禱。增 覿 某 片千力復朋 敬內面。答請不問 刻里可存久餽此愧頓 台上留鵝耳。溯闊、物裁耳。解盛安。插 神毛兹涧音 覆倘生名伏翅外 謹物緣無耗 ○有平貫惟而切 此輕鴻自全 良之耳鑒飛瞻 遠情便。之無。緣飢非念翔韓 達。重。附嗟.江 得渴.一〇左未 順諒上致海 請必手乖之 福覩巾涵阻 顧如懷 盛願 安。此一養。人 則之。伊 化近 并而方。况殆 候益小後甚。 近憐刀會豈 論先不 德旌 祉.愚雨有得 文.施見。 並魯把,期。云 可之正 候之些不宛 不雅情 弟 康旅微在在 **寕** 人 朽 于 一 某 矣。物。世。方 主本願乎 威不在惟

金能候。 邀何日 右。獲 10 惠幸矣 觀如 樽惟人 而聞 酒是而 聆移 言江 也右 今 德 令專切 緣化 20 古屬于 鴻日 人仁蒹 便新 擅人。葭、 特欣 美未乃 借羨 矣.野下 以更 是村頒 申深 內。之各形。 望夫 宛 積攜 是自如 悃。寐 30

某 字 頓

愚

25

15

咫足于是尺。當天。自

默木祇信

禱李期忘

務投。自當

熟把珍禀不兄。友薰這也人。要蒞一 熟書重告你枉對的人三得在做屬個 兒本重爹做了着話家.門見鄉一員人 的放的爹學學買兒就起見族個要學 繼下去,媽生官賣教算見,地中,麻做官 送望兩媽的話人道了並方。年俐一話 到聖隻孩人。的的晚事不把長的個來. 先人脚兒上這話輩咯。是事月客有做 生上不往書一兒的所說兒長。商。本甚 卓頭。要書房翻樣話以幾說鄉再事麼 10 上作混易念工樣兒你句個情其的的 背個跳。去書。夫都使們官底族次。官呢。 書揖,兩了,甚阿。有喚總話。細事,就阿。頭 時又隻說麼○個底要在情少是其一 候.替眼過都 欸下把大節.不居次.件. 又先睛之要 式.人大街一了家就預 要生不後.有 要的方上則也罷做備 在話的鬧衛有則。大自 一作要包個 這兒.話頑顧件你客已 句個混起規 上到兒意鄉把是商.將 句揖.瞧書矩. 頭了接兒。族事個或來 伶然東本清 留外待笑二兒。有開出 牙後西。出早 心頭長話則要衣行身 俐坐一大起 纔有上人保替食店做 齒着 直門來. 是交的家護人的或官。 不念走口。洗 正官話嚇門家人。往伺 要書到端了 經接兒。哄楣料有外候 含把書端 臉 糊書房正喝 的府應人原。理體省上 錯背裡正了 阿的酬家是料面走司 **纔話朋混為理**.的水臨 漏得頭。珍茶

f e d j i h g

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打帳。我飯辦。難什書。要的少。前的們〇 火留該麼你懂麼預這事若日這頭上 點下當吃小我聲備樣。情別不麼裡學 燈、燈、送 了。心 沒 音。你 前 有 人 來、遲。走 你 沒滅行令每有音要一大命那我的這 有燈。〇尊日許買。背次關你一昨那樣 火明天好。念多怎的你係。罷日日一快 石。天将家的的麼書。來隨了事熬個往 火早黑炙書。工解聽這便到情了是那 煤些到好。另夫。說。命。裡他底狠夜誰。裡的 兒。起了你外因有念我打你忙不是跑。 ○來睡的一為葬完吩不的不能我我 誰叫覺舅個我的了咐要師得早們上 打我的舅月該意沒了快傳室起同學 門。我時怎還當思。有。你了命兒來。學我 是該候麼要趕總還什你你來.你的。也 誰。當夥樣。做去沒沒麽。的不料是咱往 我清計他兩買有有。去本聽理幾們那 還早你如篇東看你你分。這世下都裡 沒起同今交西見筆的這個俗鐘一去。20 有來。我比章另這墨房三了的起塊等 起一來。頭〇外樣硯坐天不事來兒一 來定怕裡你還的都帶你得情的。走展 早記鬼好好有一有你不况上你罷眼。 醒得麽的呀別個了的念且頭好〇不 了。麽。不多。狠的字。麽。帽書。你有懶你要 天一怕。明好事這這子不躺的惰爲買 大定放日你情一個看好擱危為什懛 亮記下再用該本埋你再了險什麼在。 了。得蚊見。了當書字的不你不麼來我

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汗。也 看 道。有 據。打 亂 天 斤。子 有 樹 麥 噯 要不日聽時有閃起氣買柑狠底子呀 熱 熱 晷。見 候 霧。雷 風 怎 十 子 好 下 熟 這 死。也沙鐘纔日打來麼幾橙的狠了。個 總不子打上出死了。樣斤子蘋好你地 沒冷。表了。午。慢了是好。罷這菓的乏方 覺這在我差慢一一天天些沙陰了狠 得不那想不的個個氣 晚梅梨凉麼好 這算裡。不多就人暴冷。了。子李今實看。 樣春○是一散風風天日更子年在温 熱。天。你這下了吹天陰頭好。櫻菓困和 該算歡樣鐘。下風氣了。要有桃子倦的 當是喜遲、打露大。常這落葡我多。了。凉 許冬那看了下暴變。個山。萄寕樹在爽 多天。個你一霜風好晚等賣要多這的 的樹時的下〇過下上一麼核結個看 苜都候。表三什去雨。好會值桃了青樹 草。有天的還時看雹氣。就少是子。上開 要發是表沒候。得子。有黑錢栗今踢 20 收芽最走有幾見下潮了。一子・年着花 莊這好的打下天雪氣快斤。我年好兒 稼夏的快三鐘虹雪有走賣狠豐進這 割天這不下不是花雲罷得想舊那一 完熟個對。二晚個開彩你四吃年個根 了的天表刻。同好了。看乏十桃是樹落 莊狠氣慢你家天打不了個兒荒林。了 稼、我。温幾怎去氣雷見吃大橘年。在葉 秋出和分麼罷的雷星晚錢子這這子 天了的。上知還憑响。宿飯。一柑裡些

有要便天我有你得想麼我遠你他。你 逆上易。氣一三大狠是意說聽不你會風船要狠個個概清。這思的不答說說 有麽。坐好別月。六想樣怎你見應。了 頂要車我的有十不 麼都他 這國 頭幾麼。們都幾多起認樣懂的你個話 風。樂我出死個歲。來。得解得話、聽沒麼。 要的身去了,兒娶想他說。麼。震見有你 在船。上曠你子。了起麼我你墮我沒說 那夥軟一說有親來見在說了說有了 裡計弱曠這幾沒了過你的我麼請什 上你沒罷。一位有。你他頭我的我問麼 岸帶有我句令你幾幾裡全耳聽這總 在我力們話彫。父歲、次知懂杂。不個沒 大過量凉我有母先呢道得。見是有 馬河走快起幾都生不比都你說什聽 頭罷。我凉了位在貴記方懂懂清麽。見 那甘走快一閨麽。庚。得不得得楚知這 裡。心。不我個女。先多次知都清一道個 臨這動。們念三父大數。道不他點這某。 近一要上頭。個死年忘有懂的兒。個人 了隻行城想姑了紀了什得話來麼。告 河船旱罷。起娘。有有。我麼明麼。這說訴 邊。沒路路了兄兩二麼。關白你裡得。了 下有要不什弟年。十我係了懂聽說我。 錨。桅行便。麼、幾母歲。記這沒得我不後 這麼。水不免個親你不個有。他離得。來 裡搖路方不在再比清我這說那為我 好樂呢。便。了的嫁我楚。不個過個什告 阿。走 不死。單了大。記過甚的。人麼訴 30

什太後你樣該不的我隨友。一你懇我 麼。快。退從辨當要話。說便留說願求有 爲不一那法作隨一不說。下我意大一 什要點裡兒,什口個是。你這就什爺件 麼。動兒。來。等麼。答人打情麼作。麼。這事 5 因手。來往一有應說賭分些你不個情 爲在這那等什這了罷大。個要必恩求 我這裡。裡我麼個一你 禮什多典。你。 拾裡等去。這可還次賭是貌。麼禮。狠什 了坐。一我樣作有謊上不叫我我情麼回 一門會去作的。人後多是。我就歡願事 件關兒。北罷。如信來少。實失作喜多情。 東了等京你今麼。雖一在禮什你。謝。放 西。開我從想我這然兩是。麼。麼。不好心 門。來。朝這們個說銀我不不該說說 15 高從他裡一作是實子。說要。敢。當。受罷。 聲這們來。件什妄話說老這求理了求 說。裡一請事麼謊沒真實樣你當。你你 低過。齊進情好言。有說話好。替你的給 聲過去來。怎你我人謊。果我我能思我20 說。不了。近麼給玩信。假然要問勾忘一 你去。不我樣我兒凡話是說張倚不把 說你要來都什我人說這一先靠了。刀 的丢這離是麼不撒虛樣句生我你子。 太了麼開。一主過謊話。誰話好叫狠給 快,什快走個意。說就我疑恐是我知我 不麼走罷。樣。這笑丟發感怕我作禮。作 能我你去 個話了誓。我得的什我這 董沒走罷。怎使臉。一想罪好麼艱個。 得。丢的往 麼得。 定是。你。朋你為

老火蓬之可燭禀謹特鎗至不賊待 爺災。之人。勝不爲約寫刀五聊猖乎禁 前 豈 易 火 彼 猝 道 數 銃,三 害 總 客。行 行某力及.道禍篷.飭實死方測夜民 切免而行有事。 赴爲矧道不燈

臺此素烟言。慎。市 立弩更生。狂。暴夜 施獨爲與市然連請紙殺點莫由鄉約。 5 等乎。即上。起懇除處勿可矣。行提立 受倘行兩蕭請禀張論任禍不鈴禁 其不焚傍牆。飭 掛。倘其孰謹。啟約 益。拆燎。連爐除 庶鳴來大奚梆。人 實去。况篷竈以紳披鑼往焉。便緊某 彼深今蓋疎慎於星時每爲稽防某 此為隆密。虞火某戴查日此察。其等。 俱不冬倘遂災某月點輪設是盜為 得便之有爾事。謹之一流酒以賊嚴 相理際。火殃照禀人名巡會乘皆禁 安合萬燭。及得 知不邏衆機有夜 耳禀物最池火 所到如嚴暗明行 爲請焦易魚。殃 戒來有設盜。禁。以 此 乾惹若一 而日犯禁甚誰靖 20 禀台雖着。不事。 鷄清禁約。至敢地 叩。階.山且預雖 鳴晨。者。一明違方 伏飭草蓬為日 狗會鳴遇火犯。事。 為差亦係防天 盜衆鑼黃强近國 垂着爲引禦。命。之共爲昏。刻。見家 25 鑒令之火其豈 人罰號即寢地重 站 毁着之害非 無决各禁不方門 恩拆。火。物,将人 得不各人安紛擊 逞輕手行枕。亂。柝。 矣。貸。執直家盜預

欽 貴現以富感惜貴來荒有情會 皆國將大庶愚無之番絕不不同 差 然所內清蕃民非產船域明遠照 大 又屬地一昌以推外相亦於孰會 臣 聞各販統雖害思國安在生非英 兵 貴部賣之在其外若於並死惡吉 部 國轄鴉天此身服不樂生利殺利 尚 亦內片下等而以得利並害而國 書 不鬼並務愚謀天此者育者好王 兩 准城吸在民其地即有之也生為 民奸食端貪利之無數中我貴令 湖 總 人人之風口前心以十廣天國禁 吸私人俗腹吸為為年東朝雖鴉 督 食行一以而食心命於自四在片 林。 犯造體正戕者也而兹開海重烟 者作嚴人其尚乃天矣海爲洋事 必自行心生少有朝且禁家二照兵兵 懲非治豈亦近一一於以大萬得部部 自貴罪肯屬則種視大來皇里天 係國永使孽互奸同黃流帝外道 郎書 知王禁海由相夷仁茶通如而無 令流內自傳製許葉貿天同私 東廣 其傳生取染爲其湖易之此不 人製惟靈何流鴉販絲凡仁天容巡總 故造思甘必毒片賣等內無道害撫 特此此心為日夾出類地所同人怡。鄧。 爲物等鴆愛深帶洋皆民不此以 之並毒毒惜在販絕中人覆人利 厲非物是也中賣不國與而情已

諸係以然原誘靳寶外遐未人

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如謂何樹〇自口〇原干治來乃狼〇 斧助惜日斧已觸毒告證罪鷹狂則狼 柄虎一先頭如銼蛇如之狼鶻犬出斷 則添柄生求世齒咬犬鷹對面誣差羊 悔異慨賜柄有血銼干鶻羊面告將案 之又然我○狼滴○證蛇曰。相也羊○ 晚云與一昔心可昔如蝎現質狼拏古 矣遞之木有者見有鷹一有鷹間獲有 ○刀斧不斧常以毒 鶻 窩 鐵 鶻 犬 訊 兇 乞得過頭在為蛇則共證稱日日犬 命其僅雖暗咬沿不分爾真羊爾具 是柄為銳裡傷入必其尚事不欠禀 也。所一而以此鐵望羊賴羊肯某於 凡有柄無言銼舖其如乎欠招犬狼 人樹足用語復遇秉世遂犬爾穀謂口 必林矣自諻再物公人殺糧有糧羊 須盡他思人咬即斷若之我憑日頁 各被日必而之咬事有於等據久伊 守伐自得不銼適矣貲是目否不穀 其去當一知日有諺財原擊犬還糧 分何圖柄實汝利云每告並日是數 切其報方。自心銼象招之非鷹何斛 勿樹其可諻太在有橫犬誣鶻道總 尺之樹見慎毒前齒禍與告皆理不 寸愚自用之不蛇焚又審乞可羊肯 與哉顧於○能則其遇事恩作日還 人如枝世 害纏身貪之將證並求 誠世柯乃 人而豈狼狼羊狼無狼 恐人繁乞 反咬不之官按即此作

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害之乎。官並律傳事主

有所盛其

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當而果○視謂悞不○據相汝之汝○ 先鞭降車人十投能報一依等日等束 盡其臨夫小。二獵脫恩方連不汝試木 其馬問求誠條者哀鼠者則宜且之。警 力自日。佛。恐梁。之鳴 鮮萬分逐遂喻。 乃然你 今不網爪獅有無離條擲 可騰有一日知勢下子不一合抽木昔 任出何日之何不獅熟敗失則出條有 爾此事車小條能念睡反若不次一為 誦 坑 相 夫 人 得 脫 小 於 不 分 受 第 束 炎 110 佛若求將是力鼠鼠郊如之人分令者 萬汝夫車將又念區外合唇欺。折。其臥 聲 垂 日 輪 來 云 爪 區 小 力 亡 分 試 子 病 不手我陷之得下之鼠相則則能折在 如而車於恩放之體在連齒易斷之。床」。 自待落小人手思。殺旁之寒於否試將 行我坑坑亦時遂之玩爲無折於能絕 勉亦求不未須將無跳美有斷是斷衆 力。無佛能可放網益驚也。不此莫否子 能力起定手。嚙不醒 失木不衆環 20 爲拔車也。得破如而 也足隨子聽 矣救夫 饒獅槍戲 慎以手如盼 如佛求 人子之。之 之爲而命咐。 處始鼠獅 如証斷折其 世日牧 且得得隨 以矣。父之父 人汝於 急當阿 饒脫免以 一俗日不日 時肩彌 人身後爪 國語我能吾 而云。死斷有 論唇之父一 各齒後誨物。 亦車。佛 輕所子鼠

顆 可 金 將 爛 前 十 廷 曰 花 引 原 立 乃 劍 餘董國戰軍義于 玉乎珠何之一 帶儒以以舌人里卓家袍城兒園司 一日利說說出下未不擐外姓門徒欲 條主結之呂曰寨及幸唐榒呂忽王 李及其肅布主聚回閥貌戰名見允植 肅欲心曰拱公衆言宦鎧卓布一曰 齊取某某手勿商呂弄甲怒字人廢郎 了天更聞來憂議布權繫引奉躍立彭 禮下進主降某卓飛以獅軍先馬之伯 物何說公可與日馬至蠻同者持事 投情詞有乎呂吾殺萬寶李也。戟不曰 呂一呂名卓布觀過民帶儒主于可盧 布馬。布馬大同呂來塗縱出公園酒尙 寨卓必 喜鄉布董炭馬迎且門後書 來欣反匹觀知非卓爾提兩須外相海 伏然丁號其其常慌無戟陣避往商內 路與原日人勇人走尺隨對之來另 軍之來赤乃而也建寸丁圓卓卓日 人更投兎虎無吾陽之建只乃問 圍與主日實謀若率功陽見入李議. 住黃公行中見得軍馬出呂園儒于等 肅金矣千郎利此掩敢到布潛此是之 日一卓里將忘人殺妄陣頂避何百恐 可千間須李義何卓言前。東次人 速兩季得肅某慮兵廢建髮 日也 報明儒此也憑天大立陽金入儒散震 呂珠日馬卓三下敗欲指冠報日 將數此再日寸哉退亂卓披 丁此按卓 十言用汝不帳三朝罵百原

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何幼桐去。日丁州大聽不靜徐喜日吾 可聰官。卓今原刺語。罷若聽到次于欲 强明昌問日背史天不陳衆園日 主仁邑百飲後丁子敢留官門大明 廢 智 王 官 宴 一 原 乃 出 王 側 下 排 園 立 立並登日。之人也。先聲。聰耳。馬。筵中陳 之無位吾處生卓帝坐明卓帶會召留 事分方所不得怒嫡上好日.劍遍集王 言可器叱子。一學天入請百何 人過十合談宇日初人可子席公官如 云失。七公國軒順無推承爲酒卿諭李 有公日道政昂我過案大萬行公以儒 伊乃造否來威者失直位民數卿廢日 尹外惡盧日風生何出吾之巡。皆立。今 之郡三植向凛逆得立欲主。卓懼有朝 志刺十日都凜我妄于廢無教董不廷 則史餘明堂手者議筵帝威停卓從無 可素條公公執死廢前立儀酒誰者主 無未故差論方遂立大陳不止敢斬不 伊參霍矣。未天掣汝呼留可樂不之。就 尹與光昔遲畫佩欲不王以乃到則此 之國告太衆戟劍爲可諸奉厲卓威時 志政太甲人怒欲篡不大宗聲待權行 則又廟不皆目斬逆可臣廟曰百之事 篡 無 而 明 勸 而 丁 耶 汝 以 社 吾 官 行 遲 也.伊廢伊丁視原卓是為稷有到正則 霍之尹原李時視何何今一了在有 之今放上儒李之人如上言然今變 大上之馬急儒乃敢諸懦衆後 才雖于而進見荆發官弱官徐卓來

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本除惶宫至天董問人萬好行太有細 部之不中終子卓天馬騎馬人尉瘦 軍紹安不並在也。子到走與衆楊馬毅 兵日卓見無此陳何來北帝數彪 失何留在。百郎及百左匹貢 泰庭入傳語不日帝官至陳 人軍備 國卓下汝戰失此留馬校與帝。 去定庭璽。暗馬來慄色果王接尉帝君 未晷董奇卓保不帝應騎着淳乘臣 可無卓之大駕能亦其坐車于 卓經忌屯已驚 耶言大識簇駕瓊 招動憚兵懷慌汝陳驚車帝君 右陳貢 誘鮑後城廢忙來留袁駕還臣軍留 何信軍外立下却王紹行京皆校 進見校毎之馬駕勒驟不先哭尉共不 兄王尉日意拜耶馬馬到是先趙乘 弟允鮑帶是于卓向出數洛使 萌 部亦信鐵日道應前問里陽人後 下言來甲還 左日叱何忽小將軍離無 之其見馬宮陳特曰人見兒段校庄君 兵事袁軍見留來來繡旌謠珪尉而請 盡允紹入何王保者旗旗曰 首鮑行陛 歸日言城太以駕何影蔽帝級信不 且董横后言陳人。裏 日非往中到 握容卓行俱撫留卓一廛帝京軍 王師校里崔 私商必街各慰日日 將十 有市痛董旣西飛遮非號尉司 李信異百哭卓來凉出天王令袁徒 儒自心姓檢自保刺厲一千另紹王上 速惶點初駕史聲枝乘換

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兵住見到少觀中。而螢是抱之走約 四間十此。年望草行千二而內。張三三 散天常吾誰見堆漸百人哭軍讓更國 尋子 侍 乃 家 庄 前 漸 成 以 叉 馬 見 時 誌 愈 何 賣 王 之 後 面 見 羣 衣 怕 四 事 分 自在官弟子。草是路光相人散急。後且 已珪嫉陳帝堆一行芒結知去遂面說 却言賢留不上所至照爬覺趕投喊張 獨已故王敢紅庄五耀上吞不河聲讓 乘在隱也。應光院更,只岸聲知而大段 一半於庄陳冲庄足在邊。草帝死。舉珪 馬路此。主留天。主痛帝滿莽之帝人刼 隨相遂大王慌是不前地之所與馬擁 路失扶驚指忙夜能飛荆中。在。陳趕少 追不帝再帝往夢行轉棘陳帝留至帝 尋。知入拜日。視雨山陳黑留與王 偶何庄日。此却紅崗留暗王王未 至往跪臣是是日邊王之日伏知河留 崔貢進先當二墜見日中此至虛南王 毅遂酒朝今人於一此不問四實中冒 庄。殺食司皇臥庄草天見不更不部烟 毅段却徒帝于後。堆助行可露敢椽实 見珪說崔遭草驚帝我路久水高吏火 首縣閔烈十堆覺與兄正戀又聲閔連 級頭貢之常畔披王弟無須下伏貢夜 問于趕弟侍庄衣臥也奈别腹於大奔 之馬上崔之主出于遂何。尋中河呼走 貢項段毅亂問戶草隨忽活飢邊遊北 說下珪也逃日四堆螢有路餒亂賊邙 詳分拏因難二下之火流于相草休山。[30

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就那罪。但高叉那如使王滚是三繫相 留身解踢俅手端此令見到高五文煩 在分膝何拜跪王掛齊了高俅個武引 宮模下傷。道。覆且心。送大俅合小雙進。

中樣傷高小道不高兩喜身當黃總院 過這纔休的小理休般便邊。發門條公 氣踢再是的玉取玉問那跡相把 夜毬幾拜何叫器出玩道。高時伴繡到 次。一脚道。等做下書器你依運着龍庭 日似端怎樣高落呈來是見到蹴袍門。10 排鰾王敢。人。俅却進進甚氣來氣前高 個膠喝三敢胡先上獻人毬那毬襟俅 筵粘采。回與亂問端大高來個高拽看 會在高五恩踢高王王、俅也氣俅札時 專身依次王得依開有向是毬不起見 請上只告下幾道盒書前一騰敢揣端 王的得辭。脚。牌你子呈跪時地過在王 都端把端端端這看在下的起 尉王平王王王來了此道膽來去兒戴 宮大生定道道會玩拜小量端衝邊,軟 中喜本要這好踢器上。的使王撞足紗 赴那事他是你氣都端是個接立穿唐 宴里都踢齊便毬遞王王鴛個在一 ○ 肯 使 高 雲 下 你 與 聽 都 鴦 不 從 雙 放出俅社場喚堂罷尉拐着人嵌穿 高來只名來做候笑親踢向背金紫 俅奉得爲踢甚官道。隨。還人後線繡 囘奉叩天一麼收姐受端叢伺飛龍 府端頭下向高了夫東王。裏候鳳袍 去。王謝圓。要俅去眞人端直也靴腰

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玉公般黄日見王一玲書請打閒哲誕 玩出玉羅小端大個瓏院端彈。之宗牛 器來。玩包王王喜玉端裏王品事皇辰 來問器複都又道龍王少居竹無帝分 進你懷包太謝深筆拿歇中調一御付 大是中了尉。了謝架起猛坐絲般弟府 王那揣寫取兩厚也獅見定吹不見中 院個着了出個意是子書太彈曉掌安 公府書一玉依想這不架尉歌無東排 道裏呈封龍舊那個落上對舞一駕。筵 殿來逕書筆入筆匠手一席自般排宴 下的投呈架席架人看對相不不號專 在人。端却和飲必一了兒陪。必會九請 庭高王便兩宴是手一羊酒說更大小 心依宮高個至更做囘雕進 無王。舅 裏施中依鎮暮妙.的。道玉數當一是端 和禮來。送紙盡王却好碾杯。日般個王 小罷把去。玉醉都不王成食王不聰這 黄 答 門 高 獅 方 尉 在 都 供都愛明端 門道官俅子散道手尉鎮兩尉如俊王 踢小.吏領着 明頭.見紙套。府琴.俏乃 氣人轉了一端日明端獅那中。琴人是 毬是報王個王取日王子端准書物神 你王與都小相出取心極王備畫浮宗 自駙院尉金別。來。來愛是起筵無浪天 過馬公鈞盒囘送一便做身宴所子子 去府沒旨子宮至併說得净水不弟第 高中多將盛去宮相道好手陸通。門十 依特時着了了中送再細偶俱踢風一 道送院兩用次便端有巧來備毬幫子

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府見馬。幹人。他高引也人數柳性好如 中了他人。當去俅領得家日。大必他何 出便喜送時駙原高個下。董剛不却安 入喜。愛高囘馬是俅出螢將面肯是着 如隨風俅了王擊逕身。火仕皮改。個得 同即流去董晉閒到足之思當若掣他。 家寫人那將卿浮學下光量時留閒若 人囘物。小仕府浪士意照出只住的是 一書正王書裏的府內人一得在破個 般。收用都札做人內如不個權家落志 自留這太留個心門何亮。路且中戶。誠 古高樣尉高親下史高恐數歡倒沒老 道俅的處俅隨相轉俅後將天惹信實 日在人。這在人。道報大悞出喜得行的 遠府一太府都我小喜了一地孩的人 日內見尉裏喚這蘇謝足套相兒人。可 疎 做。小 乃 住 他 里 學 了 下。衣 留 們 亦 以 日個蘇是了做如士董我服在不且用 親親學哲一小何出將轉寫家學當他 日隨士宗夜王安來仕薦了宿好初在 近自差皇次都着見董足一歇了有家 忽此人帝日太得了将下封每待過出 高持妹寫尉他。高仕與書日不犯入。 日依書。夫。了他不依使小簡酒收來也 小遭送神一便如看個蘇對食留被教 王際這宗封喜做了人學高管他斷孩 都在高皇書歡個來將士俅待又配兒 太王俅帝呈這人書着處說住撇的們 尉都來。的使樣情。知書外道了不人學 慶尉拜駙簡的薦道簡後小十過舊些

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下辭一回感四投發月京棒便使宣水 了了封東得方海放被城相將棒武滸 這柳書京。風于一東他 裹樸氣 最軍傳 封大札這調隔個京交城頑毬是 書郎收柳雨澇開城親外耍那踢有 董背拾世順漢賭裏開望亦字得一 將上些權放子坊人封閒胡去 好個 仕包人却寬高的民府因亂 脚浮宋 7 一裏事和恩依閒不裏擊學毛 氣浪 見離盤東大投漢許告了詩傍毬破宗 高了纏京赦托柳容了一書添京落皇 俄 臨 賈 城 天 得 大 他 一 個 詞 作 師 戶 帝 看准發裏。下柳郎在紙生賦立人子在 州高金那大名家文鐵若人口 弟。時。 柳迤依梁高郎唤宿狀王論便順姓其 世裡同橋俅家柳食。府員仁政不高時 權囘東下在一世高尹外義作叫排宋 來到京開臨住權俅把兒禮姓高行仁 書東投生准三他無高子智高二第宗 自京遊藥州。年,刊献使信名却二天 肚逕董舖因後生奈斷錢。行。依都自子 裏來將的。得來專何了每忠這叫小已 尋金仕董了哲好只二日良人他不遠。 思梁家将赦宗惜得十三却吹做成東 道橋過仕宥天客來脊瓦是彈高家京 這下活。是罪子。養准杖雨不歌毬業。開 當親犯。因閒西迭舍會。舞後只封 依 生 時 戚 思 拜 人 臨 配 風 只 刺 來 好 府 我樂高寫量南招准出花在館發刺汴 家家、依了要郊納州界雪東便跡鎗梁

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要有見好平。事的鐵只住酒打抓心酒 捋寸提在站全滿将一張醒。你住上我 猛鐵着傍穩休口張推不早便揉却偏 虎在張說了若叫 道放。兩怎了 還要 之手直硬一要道提看一廂麼.兩明你 鬢 千 同 話 手 圈 大 將 水 手 走 過 揉 白。吃 何軍走道提留家起小將出繼道一 其萬出敢着叫不來姐檯七話怎急去。 愚馬大怎自你要只分子八道,敢急因 也中門如步人動一上一個好到得拿 將也之此了人手。手。熊椒大意虎火起 手不外胡出都有掃你那漢。留頭星那 一可方為來死。話得打些鐵飲。上亂杯 舉出將且衆張好衆早餚笑乃來进。酒 道人手饒人連講人推饌一敢尋因來 請何放他眼連鐵東跌碗笑倚死將炤 了。况 開 去 睜 應 道 倒 去。蓋 道。酒 張 酒 着 竟三道少 睜 承 沒 西 有 打 一 撒 大 都 鐵 大五煩不看道甚歪。丈翻羣野。叫急夾 踏個張得着我話張餘一風快道醒頭 步酒兄要氣送講。原遠地狗。關你了。夾 囘 色 傳 見 得 你 只 是 近 水 怎 門 敢 亡 臉 下之語個白我好個跌運敢不打跳只 處徒諸高挺送好色倒剛來要我起一 來。十兄下。又你送厲。地走欺走麽身澆 數 我 鐵 不 放 我 內 上。到 人,了 鐵 來。鐵 個鐵只敢鐵出花扒身因且便將雖 漢中作上將去酒不邊一打一張然 指玉不前張便洵起被手他掌一醉 望若聽只放萬虛來鐵捉個道把

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酒身滿王弟奈英事八賜禮。鐵斜張去 你都臉李坐何雄餘個教。見兄着更久 敢軟含二人也本且胆張他既雨却了。 不了。怒兄適只色。慢的也言要隻的 吃靠道俱叉得且講。好不語到色大鐵 麼着講連陪勉請且漢爲不我眼公無 鐵椅明三王强一先子。禮。遜歷糟子奈 道子。對觴。兄吃觴較却瞪便城包來只 不只飲何三乾一一原着立縣着了.得 吃搖我獨觴了。飲較來眼住來。一衆又 張頭吃小李張而酒青看答做個人復 大道了。弟兄道乾量。青鐵應豪麻還坐 怒吃你要三纔自看眉看道傑臉。未 道得如一觴。像乾是目。了小怎早及與 你便何觴方個了如白叉弟不吃答 怎 吃 不 而 纔 朋 遂 何。白 看 便 會 得 應 對 敢吃吃止又友舉衆面忽是我醉只飲 到不莫是去一定人孔。大鐵一醺見了 我得非欺陪面。觴聽無笑挺會。醺。那三 山便你小長又要了。異說生。鐵一張巨 東不倚弟兄叫炤俱於道不正路公觴 來吃。强了一左乾。贊女我知立叫子飲 裝有欺從觴。右鐵美子。只長起將歪纔 腔.甚我不賤斟見道。想道兄身進戴完 你麼麼。受量起他張是鐵要來來着忽 不强。鐵人有兩乾兄晉兄會打道一左 吃張一之限觴的妙侯是小帳那頂右 我道時欺張鐵。爽論後七弟。與一方叉 這這醉張道道快大坐個有他位巾報 杯杯的便既小無得了頭。何施是也道

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弟能辭揖弟說.到告豪送忙兄了.蓋就 剛人說道。姓又席止。何與答豪三便坐 到。住。道。久台得前忽足鐵道。傑人不而 就只李聞號。離止左道道正士只復飲。 一得兄大鐵席住右台借是也得推原 刻要繼名。道。要道又兄過正不停辭來 也先來。今小作相報如兄是。可杯飲三 不別小日弟禮熟李金之王不接了人 能了弟有乃那兄翰如酒因會。見。半與 留。李本緣大李弟。林玉。聊重王過晌曲 這因不幸名且不的方表復道。就鐵蘖 是作該會。鐵不消二得小舉莫安正生 明色就過中作動公文弟手非坐有俱 欺道。要就玉。揖。身。子品仰足就道個是 小鐵去。邀李先小來之慕恭是王住好 弟。兄只入道看弟了。正之道。打兄手友。 不也因坐。這着寬四彼私。人入來之一 足太來鐵等鐵就人此鐵仰大得意。拈 與欺得此說。問坐正交接人安甚忽上 飲人。早。時是道。罷。要贊。了仰。侯。妙左手。 了。既叨酒鐵好過起一也失養因右便 水要飲已都英道身連斟敬閒用報津 運行。過半憲俊尚相就一失堂手王津 道。何多。酣。的人有迎。是觴敬。的指兵有 鐵不况又長物。遠那三囘因鐵着部味 先早行想君且客李巨敬滿挺鐵的你 生去。色着子。請在公觴。道斟生道三一 去爲倥要連教此子鐵小一麼此公杯 是何您行。連長鐵。已正弟巨水位子我 要小不因作兄聽走要粗觴運鐵來一

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又笑還鐵去故苦鐵說道難安行。言有 勞坐是先叉敬辭先不纔道今小去。所 賜下老生恐托了。生了。進台亦弟但求 酒。不大與非使今遠只拜兄不强裝也。 恐復人過情。者幸來見怎還敢留。己不 飲言說舍正辭有高水便不久也束。識 非去。得親。在謝。緣。誼。運好肯留。自行台 其不痛難此即又特忽相俯只覺 時多快。道費今得托走擾。從。求惶涳何 也。時鐵就躊日相我了過鐵畧愧忽見 過備見不躇。之隋。學進道本停但勢拒 笑上二如幸來。鐵生來知不足只不之 道酒人古老亦道具看已欲時是容甚 慢來。互人。翁不我來。見相留。少清緩也。 慢過相乃有過學奉鐵逢。因動辰耳。鐵 飲就歘必以願生屈忙當見一愕過公 去送留拘教一來少施忘過餐腹道子 少坐竟拘之識殊表過不深而而既道 不鐵不於水荆草微禮我。情即來。是蒙 得道記世運也草。忱滿台厚聽又台長 遇原前俗道而去不臉兄貌驅令兄兄 蒙情如古蒙復識推快懇車愕不般 飲憐只此之過勿鐵笑士。懇就腹以殷 時朝認甚好兄。忽先道何欸道而朋雅 三飢做非朋即於生咋故留。庶去。友愛。 人而好宜友諄禮何日作止幾弟爲小 俱授意也傾諄原故。舍此得人心情。弟 各餐便過蓋投無見姪套住情實快亦 大爲笑笑如轄。酬外女言。下雨有意不 一道故。欲酢苦感正道盡不要忍

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賜小日。日承誠會。廳。揖公兄冠處却 顧弟鐵可長叉前方讓。子賜齊打轉好 了。雖 道 也。兄 快 蒙 纔 到 直 顧 楚 聽。央 逑 既不小往厚事。辱施廳。出因笑一店傳。 蒙才。弟外受。敢臨禮鐵門連哈見上 賜也實就本板敝序公迎連哈鐵 顧忝實走。當作邑坐。子接。打的公個計 便為要過領平時。一就十恭迎子小定 要宦行。欄教。原即面要分拱將來厮了。 質家不住只十謀獻施殷請出拜。拿到 做子是道是日晉上禮。勤。進來早了次 賓弟。故相歸之謁茶過一去。道。飛帖日 主。台辭。逢心飲。而來公團鐵小報子日 小兄乞不似以又過子和公弟與來未 弟不長飲箭。慰匆公止氣子昨過囘出。 苦要兄真今飢匆子。住便原日公拜就 苦看相令日渴發因道。放打晋子。過起 相得諒。風立之駕說此不帳。謁。剛公來。 留。十說月刻懷抱道。間下只不等子叫 不分罷笑就鐵恨久不冷到過的不小 過輕又人要公至聞便臉門聊鐵期丹 欲了。往任行子今。台請來。投表公過收 少若外是了。茶今兄。教。只一仰子公拾 盡果走行把罷。幸英遂得名慕到子行 賓看過急。臂就再雄將投帖之門。已李。 主輕一也之立臨。之鐵了便誠。過伏打 之就手要歡起又名直名走鐵公下點 誼 不 扯 屈 留 身 承 急 邀 帖 忽 敢 子 人 起 耳該住留待來垂思到兩見勞早在身 非來道。三異道。顧一後相過台衣下自

費。衣段之了流且些綠不自祖流餘〇 甚服是糧○多這銀由。足古仁不之尙 且要說甚夫少銀錢。大供民皇蓋財節 有華兵至兵就錢到凡一風帝則而儉 不麗不稱丁要就那人日皆躬一後以 安飯知貸錢乾如忽生之貴行洩可惜 生食節以糧涸水然世需乎節無供財 的。要儉遂有了。一使上其勤儉餘不用。 還 美 的 其 一 用 般 他 不 害 儉 為 而 時 〇 要口、你 欲 定 財 人 的 能 乃 然 天 水 之 生 揭過們子之如節時一更勤下立用人 些一兵母數流儉侯日甚而先涸故不 债個丁相乃水。他、緩沒也不休矣節能 任月的權不若就得有○儉養財儉一 意日錢日知不象濟費。這則生之尚日 揮子糧。復撙仔聚急。就頭十息流焉而 灑.到 原 一 節 細 水 所 不 一 夫 海 不 夫 無 只花有日衣着的以可段之內節財用 债好些。一說一是力殷則猶卽 一幾定深鮮任般。節日說不富用水不 時個之累麗從流儉沒聖足猶之也可 快月數重食多的一有祖供兢無節 活。錢目。饑求少水着。銀仁一兢度儉日 ○糧若寒廿銀不是錢。皇夫以而猶而 這是不美錢聚個然帝之惜財水無 錢不免一轉注絶必般用財立之財。 糧 知 ○ 月 眼 些.妙 定 殷 積 用 匱 蓄 然 怎道這費也有的積垂歲示矣也必 的 樽 第 數 就 多 法 蓄 訓 所 訓 我 水 留 够節。二月罄少。子。下的藏蓋聖之有

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啼子們你不餘隆罔以聲思與首欽聖 了的縱們信推孝極教察父爾以定論 他時不聽非而養人至形母兵孝孝 便候知着。孝廣毋子於色愛民弟經敦 愁爹孝孝戰之博欲成笑子人開衍孝 你娘順順陳如奕報人則之等其義弟 行懷爹爹無曾飲親復爲心宣端一以 動抱娘娘勇子酒恩為之乎示朕書重 了着。怎這非所毋於授喜方之丕衍人 他冷麼一孝謂好萬家啼其夫承釋倫。 就了不件皆居勇一。室則未孝鴻經我 跟不把事孝處關自謀為離者業文。聖 定會那是子不狠當生之懷天追義祖 了自爹天分莊毋內理憂抱之維理仁 你已娘地內非好盡百行饑經往詳皇 步穿愛間之孝貨其計動不地訓買帝 不衣見常事事財心經則能之推無臨 離饑子存也君私外營跬自義廣非御 你着的的○不妻竭心步哺民立孝六 若你心道這忠子其力不寒之教治十 有們腸理第非縱力俱離不行之天 了顏想百三孝便謹瘁。疾能也思下年 疾色上姓段准儀身父痛自人先之法 病你一們是官文節母則衣不申意祖 他笑想。最單不未用之寢爲知孝故尊 便了。當大說敬備以德食父孝弟聖親 睡他你的孝非而勤實俱母父之諭孝 不便們德的孝誠服同廢者母義。十思 能喜做行道朋慤勞昊以審獨用六不 安。你孩你理。友有以天養音不是條匱

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夜心人夜○子而智皆○聖玉時○者 之哉見之孟日無非有惻譬振者孟也 所其其所子為篡由之隱則之也子助 息所濯息日此者外惻之力也孔日之 平以濯雨牛詩不樂隱心也者子伯長 旦放也露山者能我之人由終之夷者 其以之之其盡也。心。皆射條謂聖擾 氣良爲所木知其我仁有於理集之苗 其心未潤嘗道才固也。之。百也大清者 好者嘗非美平者有羞羞步始成者也 惡亦有無矣。故也。之惡惡之條集也。非 與猶材萌以有詩也之之外理大伊徒 人斧馬蘖其物曰弗心心也者成尹無 相斤此之郊必天思義人其智也聖益 近之豈生於有生耳也。皆至之者之而 也於山焉大則蒸矣。恭有爾事金任又 者木之牛國民民故敬之。力也聲者害 幾也。性羊也之有日之恭也終而也之 希旦也又斧秉物求心敬其係玉柳〇 則旦哉。從斤夷有則禮之中理振下 其而雖而伐也則得也心非者之惠 旦伐存牧之故民之。是人爾聖也聖 畫之。乎之可好之舍非皆力之金之 之可人是以是秉則之有也事聲和 所以者以爲懿夷失心之○也也者 智者也 爲爲豈若美德。好之智是 譬始孔 有美無彼乎〇是或也非 則條子 楷乎。仁濯是° 懿相仁之 亡其義濯其 德倍義心。 巧理聖 之。日之也。日 孔蓰禮人 也也之

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on mikjih gfedeba

趨有子果哉人壯喜後左何喬之餒 而閔焉來○彫而以用右以木內其孟 往其能也○琢欲爲之皆識之不妻子 視 苗 使 日 樂 之 行 能 〇 日 其 謂 治 子 謂 之之子行正至之勝○賢不也則則齊 苗不不或子於王其孟未才有如如宣 則長遇使見治日任子可而世之之王 稿而哉之孟國姑也見也舍臣何何日 矣堰○止子家舍匠齊諸之之王王王 天之必或日則女人宣大日謂顧日之 下者有足克日所斵王夫國也左棄臣 之芒事之告姑學而日皆君王右之。有 不芒焉行於舍而小爲日進無而曰託 助然而止君女從之巨賢賢親言士其 苗歸勿非爲所我則室未如臣他師妻 長謂正人來學則王則可不矣孟不子 者其心所見而何怒必也得昔子能於 寡人勿能也從如以使國已者見治其 矣日。应也嬖我今爲工人將所齊士 以今勿吾人則有不師皆使進宣則而 爲日助之有何璞勝求日卑今王如之 無病長不臧以玉其大腎踰日日之楚 益矣也遇倉異於任木然尊不所何遊 而予無魯者於此矣工後疏知謂王者 助若侯沮教雖夫師察踰其故日比 之苗宋天君玉萬人得之戚亡國已其 者長人也君人鎰幼大見可也。者之反 不矣然臧是彫必而木賢不王非曰也 耘 其 朱 氏 以 琢 使 學 則 焉 慎 曰 謂 四 則 苗子人之不玉玉之王然與。吾有境凍

用與與終日母孝傳言好知 歳或去。 和子之追君能出不令作而四時然向 爲曰與。遠。子竭則習色亂不書。致者使 貴父子民不其弟乎鮮者愠 祀。也。紂 先在貢德重力。謹子。矣未不論〇然惡 王觀日歸則事而日仁。之亦語。 則未 之其夫厚不君信道曾有君 道志子矣威能汎千子也。子子 生而 斯父温子學致愛乘日君平。日 爲沒良禽則其衆之吾子有學 美觀恭問不身。而國日務子而 而武 小其儉於固與親敬三本日時 大行讓子主朋仁事省本其習 由三以貢忠友行而吾立爲之 之年得日信交有信身而人不 有無之。夫無言餘節爲道也亦 所改夫子友而力用人生孝說 不於子至不有則而謀孝弟乎 行父之於如信。以愛而弟而有 知之求是已雖學人不也好朋 和道之那者日文。使忠者犯自 而可也也過未予民乎其上遠 和謂其必則學。夏以與爲者方 不孝諸聞勿吾日時、朋仁鮮來 以矣。異其憚必賢子。友之矣。不 禮有乎政改。謂賢日交本不亦 節子人求曾之易弟而與。好樂 之日之之子學色子不子犯乎。 不禮求與日矣。事入信日上人 可之之抑慎子父則乎巧而不

先 稔

隱自

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此念

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有以

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于存.

斯國

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地俗,以曰、矣。無當化 肱颺曰、蹌琴帝 變惟序箕是益紂及箕良言刺疏瑟曰. 化德彝子用吾之民。子哉日、天簫以迪 我無倫之保祀時般碑底念之韶詠.朕 得陋而明其故大有 事哉命九祖德 其惟立夷明不道仁 康率惟成考時 正人大正哲為悖人柳哉作時鳳來乃 其無典。蒙與委亂日、宗又與惟凰格.功 大遠、故難之身天箕元。歌事、幾。來虞惟 人用在也。俯以威子、 曰、慎乃儀。賓叙、10 歟.廣書及仰.存之實 元乃歌變在皐 於殷日、天晦视動具凡首憲、日、日、位、陶 **虚 祀 以 命 是 誠 不 兹 大 叢 欽 股 於 羣 方** 當俾箕既謨仁能道人脞哉肱予后祇 其夷子改、範矣、戒以之哉、屢喜擊德厥 周為歸生辱與聖立道股省哉石讓叙 時華、作人於亡人於有肱乃元拊下方 未化洪以囚吾之世、三情成、首石、管施 至、及範、正、奴、國、言故一哉欽起百鼗象 般民法乃昏故無孔日、萬哉哉獸鼓刑20 祀也。授出而不所子正事乃百率合惟 未率聖大無忍。用。述蒙墮賡工舞止明。 殄,是也。法,邪.且進六難。哉。載熙庶柷夔 比大及用隤是死經二帝歌哉,尹敔.日. 干道、封為而二以之日、拜日、皇允笙戛 己 藂 朝 聖 不 道.併 旨.法 曰.元 陶 諧 鏞 擊 死于鮮師息有命、尤授愈首拜帝以鳴 微厥推周故行誠般聖。往明手庸間、球 子躬道人在之仁勤三欽哉稽作鳥摶 已天訓得易者矣:焉.曰.哉.股首歌獸柑。

至世。無舉、否、侯以粉翼。帝兪。有木、孜。 于子若敷則以出米子曰、禹無、暨皇書 五創丹納威明納黼欲吁、日、化益陶經 千.若朱以之。之.五 黻,宣臣安居.奏曰. 州時.傲.言禹 撻 言.稀力 哉汝 烝 庶 吁.虞 十娶惟明日以汝繡四鄰止民鮮如書 有于慢庶命記聽。以方、哉、惟乃食。何。 二鐘遊以哉之子五汝鄰幾粒子禹益 師.山、是功、帝、書違、采爲。哉惟萬決日、稷 外辛.好.車光用汝彰予臣康,那九洪 薄壬.傲服天識强施欲哉。其作川水帝 四癸虐以之哉.汝于觀禹弼乂。距滔日 海、甲、是庸、下、欲無五古曰、直、皇四天、來 咸取作誰至並面色人愈惟陶海浩禹 建则罔敢于生從、作之帝動曰、潛浩汝 五呱畫不海哉。退服、象、日、丕兪、畎懷亦 長而夜讓隅工有汝日臣應師滄山昌 各流額敢蒼以後明。月、作徯汝距襄言。 迪子額不生納言、子星、朕志。昌川、陵。禹 有弗罔敬萬言、欽欲辰、股以言。暨下拜 功、子、水應、那時四聞山、脓昭禹稷民日、 苗惟行帝黎而鄰六龍耳受日、播唇都 頑荒舟不獻颺庶律華目上都奏墊帝 弗度朋時共之頑五蟲子帝帝庶子子 即土淫敷惟格。讒聲、作欲天慎艱乘何 工、功于同帝則說、八會左其乃食四言 帝弼家日臣承若音宗右申在鮮載子 其成用奏惟之不在彝有命位。食。隨思 念五殄周帝庸在治藻、民用帝懋山日 哉。服、厥功。時之。時、忽、火、汝休。日、墨刊 孜

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